THE

# MONTHLY ANTHOLOGY

FOR

*MARCH*, 1807.

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*For the Anthology.*

## AN ESSAY UPON THE MULTIPLICITY OF OUR LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.

*NO. I.*

THE rapid growth and population of the United States have excited the wonder and astonishment of Europe. While many countries of the old world have been retrograding from their former prosperity, and while the most flourishing have advanced with slow and painful steps to their present importance, America seems to have been exempted from the common lot of nations, and to have risen in the short period of thirty years to a distinguished rank in the world. The Grecian colonies proceeded, like Minerva, from their parent at the full period of maturity, and then slowly advanced or declined with the nations around them. The United States on the contrary, deprived in early infancy of a mother's fostering care, had long to struggle for independence; but, from the moment that was obtained, she has surpassed the sanguine expectations of ideal calculations, and has increased beyond any former example in numbers, strength, and riches, and we might add learning, were an opinion to be formed from the number of her literary institutions. While the growing political importance of the United States is acknowledged by every one, it may be useful to inquire how far her numerous schools, academies, and colleges entitle her to the character of being really learned.

New England, with less than double the population of either London or Paris, can boast of possessing more Universities, than either England or France.

Academies are established in every part of the country, and not a village, but has its schools. Indeed strangers might reasonably expect to find learning possessed here by every peasant, to see numbers in every village familiar with the writings of the ancients, or who had explored the deepest recesses of science; and that her universities would annually produce numbers, who by their taste and erudition might enlighten their own age, and advance the rising generation. It

is true, that information is more generally possessed in New-England, than in almost any other country in the world; that there are few, who are unacquainted with the first rudiments of learning; that a competent knowledge of mechanicks, but more particularly of geography, is generally diffused through the country; but in politicks, to which every one thinks himself competent, the people are the dupes of every designing knave; while the higher branches of learning, those which elevate the soul, and teach man the use of his noble faculties, droop for want of culture. The tree puts forth leaves most luxuriantly, but the fruit is without flavour. Our colleges are careful to exhibit catalogues of the numbers, whose brows they have encircled with the laurel wreath, but more care is taken to enrol their names, than to store their minds. Indeed the little learning, that is acquired at our colleges, is frequently left within their walls, or is soon dissipated amidst the bustle of active life. Frequently even the professional student does not scruple to throw aside his classicks for the more profitable study of cent. per cent. Some leave good sense and useful knowledge behind them to carry only a remembrance of words into their commerce with the world. They confound the ignorant by their use of hard terms, and men of information by their conceit and jargon. For the truth of this observation we appeal to the orations, which the prolifick month of July annually produces, which defy all criticism, and excite the gape and admiration of the multitude, by being as totally beyond their comprehension, as they are deficient in common sense. As, at most of our colleges degrees are obtained without any exercise being performed or any examination passed, it will readily be granted that degrees are frequently conferred without merit; but at the same time it may be asked, whether many of the pupils may not contend with the first scholars of Europe for literary fame. So far indeed is this from being the case, that an English school-boy must possess a classical knowledge, superiour to what is required here at any period of an university education. Many, at the moment of receiving their degree, could not pass the examination, by which they gained admittance. Indeed not only are the students allowed to neglect the studies of the college; but those studies are inadequate to the formation of a finished scholar. Nor do the colleges afford the proper means of instruction, either in classick literature or abstruse science. For the truth of these observations ask the first scholars of our country, whether they do not owe their present eminence to their own exertions, rather than to the fostering care of their alma mater. Vain would be the attempt to improve the internal regulations, without a radical reform in the whole system. Upon the present weak pillars the cumbersome superstructure could not be supported, but must speedily fall to the ground; the inadequate compensation of its officers is a defect, which pervades every branch of our government, and prevents its commanding the first talents for any situation. An office, without allowing its possessor a proper support, holds him, as a mark, for envy and discontent to shoot at. Indeed a man of abilities must possess uncommon ambition or

uncommon patriotism, that will accept an office either in the state or college. The teachers of our schools are those, who will serve cheapest, not those, who know their duty best. An instructor at an academy may hope to obtain the wages of a day-labourer, and a tutor at college generally receives as much, as a mechanick can earn by the sweat of his brow. At the same time, our democratick ideas would lead us to divide these paltry stipends among a still larger number of institutions; for every one supposes himself injured by the establishment of any institution nearer to his neighbour, than to himself. We have not, it is true, travelling colleges, or travelling academies; but as we have in some states travelling legislatures, and, in our own, travelling law courts, we may still hope for this further improvement. The multiplicity of colleges may tend to the diffusion of knowledge; but it likewise tends to disperse the rays. Collected into one focus, they might kindle some happy luminaries to give light and warmth to an age, but now, dispersed, are lost on too wide a surface. The same funds, which now faintly move through the veins of our numerous colleges, would give life and animation to one university, and excite an impulse, that would bring every dormant faculty into operation. When the parent is sickly, can we expect the offspring to be robust? and because some are endued with so strong a constitution, and such lively powers, as to overcome the disadvantages of education, shall we therefore praise the institution, that could not check their progress? The chair of a professor, instead of being sought for as the reward of industrious merit, can with difficulty be filled. Sense of duty alone can induce any man of talents to accept it, and retirement is considered far preferable to the most dignified situation at the first of our universities. The tutors only regard their situation as affording them time and opportunity to prepare for some permanent situation in life; they cannot therefore be expected to give more time to the discharge of their duty, than the discipline of the college absolutely requires.—Their thoughts must be devoted to their future prospects, rather than to their present drudgery. How could the best internal regulations raise such an institution to any degree of eminence? If such is the situation of our first universities, what shall we think of those minor institutions, where the stipend can never enable the instructor to maintain the rank of gentlemen, and where, banished from polished society, they can have little inducement to mental exertion? Their libraries, philosophical apparatus, and all the necessary, but expensive accompaniments of an university, are on the same contracted scale. The philosopher would wish, that his senses were deceived by some optical illusion, and that the sun of science, which appeared multiplied, but shorn of his beams, really existed, and would one day appear to us in his native splendour and beauty. The cheapness of instruction and of living attracts numbers to these inferiour colleges; for a degree from one of them will save as much time to the law student, will introduce the physician as readily into practice, and will as speedily procure a settlement for the divine, as from the first university in the world. Should it be objected that, altho' the edu

cation is not so perfect, yet it is afforded to a much larger number, than could be instructed at one university, which would be necessarily more expensive, the fact would be granted; but whence arises the benefit of giving such numbers an university education? Most, who receive it, think they must of course enter one of the three professions, law, physick or divinity, all of which are now greatly crowded. The abundance of the article has rendered the labours of the divine so cheap, that in the country he is frequently obliged to resort to the labour of his hands for the support of himself and family. The lawyer, who can neither descend to encourage the litigious spirit of his neighbours, nor to take advantage of their necessities, if he has neither powerful friends nor great talents, must for a long time content himself with the most moderate income. If the medical has formerly been less thronged than the other professions, it can no longer boast that exemption; and we much fear, that many worthy characters, unwilling to resort to empirick arts, must remain unrecompensed and unknown. Shall we therefore tempt greater numbers from the shop or from the plough to enter these professions already more than filled? Should the numbers be diminished, we have no fear, that industrious merit would be excluded from advantages now enjoyed. Private and publick liberality might make ample provision for exciting into action those latent sparks of genius, which now lie concealed in the humble walks of life.

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# *AMUSEMENT.*

*For the Anthology.*

High Diddle! Diddle!
The cat's in the fiddle!
The cow jump'd over the moon!
The little dog laugh'd
To see the sport;
And the dish ran after the spoon!

## *NO. I.*

THE above lines are very generally, though very superficially known: they have, in this country, been confined almost altogether to the use of children; whereas, among the Germans, they have been rendered into several languages, and have received the various annotations of the most learned men. That very profound scholar, Loshwhsrztcentshckoffershoff, has given a translation of them into Latin and Hebrew, with notes, &c. 6 vols. fol. He has the following curious remarks respecting their author: Viri quanquam multi, doctissimi, ac nullius rei nescii, quæ scientiam spectat, hos versus elegantissimos ab Anglicano aliquo scriptos fuisse crediderunt, nullo modo tamen in eandem sententiam venire possum. Plane mihi constat, hoc jucundum poema scriptum fuisse ab Achivorum aliquo, anno circiter ante Christum 1184; nam hoc anno Troja capta fuit. Ergo judico multa illo

tempore accidisse miracula, quorum aliquæ his versibus numerari poeta voluit. Vol. 3, p. 748, not in Excurs. 24, q. v. This learned man in another place mentions, that they were probably first brought into England in the time of Claudius, 45 B. C. when Aulus Plautius was sent against the Britons.

We propose to enter into a criticism of the above poem in a series of numbers: as we shall study brevity as much as possible, the series will not exceed thirty, although the many beauties of this performance would lead us into a much longer dissertation. The poet begins with an address to his patron. Few poems, which commence with a compliment to the author's patron, are so elegant and concise, in this particular, as the production before us. This poet has addressed his Mæcenas under the title of Diddle; and there is a certain elegance in the repetition of the name, which, while it impresses the title more strongly on the mind, increases the beauty of the poem, by adding smoothness to the verse. Horace had this in view, in the 14th Ode of the 2d book, where he addresses Postumus:

Eheu! fugaces, Postume, Postume, &c.

But he has fallen far short of the original, by introducing the word *fugaces*, which is connected with the line below; and, where the same writer addresses Mæcenas, he has nothing of that beautiful brevity, which characterises the first line of the production under review:

Mæcenas, atavis edite regibus, &c.

How is this to be compared to the following?

High Diddle Diddle!

The epithet *High* is, in fact, the greatest compliment, that Diddle could possibly receive. He was probably the same as "high chancellor" in the age in which he lived, and a much greater man than either Mæcenas or Postumus.

It has been called in question, whether or no this line was really intended, as the beginning of the poem, by the author himself. How much, in this respect, does the performance before us resemble the Æneid of Virgil! But this is not the proper place to institute a comparison between these two celebrated productions of the human mind.

The German critick, whose name we have already mentioned, conceives that the old English reading is very incorrect; and that it conveys nothing like the original meaning. He conjectures that the first line was addressed to Venus, and supposes the Greek line stood thus;

Ἔια, Διΐδαλια, Διΐδαλια,

This however seems altogether improbable, on several grounds. Venus could not be invoked to assist the poet, as appears by the exclamation ἔια, and it is not to be supposed that she would be invoked by a Greek, when she was decidedly in favour of the Trojans. We rather conclude that Diddle was some person in antiquity, who held some publick office; that he was the particular friend and patron of our poet, and is therefore complimented by him in this beautiful performance.

It may not be improper to mention another conjecture, respecting this particular line, and which is founded on an old English copy, in which the first line stands thus.

I, Diddle, Diddle,—

In this case, Diddle was no other than the poet himself: this we do not believe, although it is by no means impossible, for we find exordiums of the same kind in other eminent works. In Virgil thus: Ille ego, qui quondam gracili modulatus avena, &c. It is not natural to think the writer would repeat his own name, however frequently he might repeat the title of his patron; we therefore choose to abide by our own opinion, and conclude that the old English reading was as it now stands, in the poem above. S.

*To be continued.*

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# *LAW OF BLOCKADE.*

*For the Anthology.*

GENTLEMEN,

AS it is the policy of our government to preserve our country in peace during the wars in Europe, every American is in a degree interested in the *rules* of decisions respecting the rights of neutrals, which different states admit as the *law of nations*. I have devoted a few moments in collecting and arranging the principles, embraced by England in cases in admiralty, in which the breach of blockade has been alleged, as the ground of seizure and condemnation, and communicate them for publication, in hopes that the attempt may induce others of more leisure and better opportunities to inquire, how far the law of nations has been received or modified on other subjects, in which we are equally interested.

As a blockade is a just measure of war, there is no rule of the law of nations better than this,—that the breach of a blockade by neutrals subjects their property to confiscation. This principle is recognized in all books of law, found in all treaties, and universally ackowledged by all governments, which possess any degree of civil knowledge.

To convict a neutral of a breach of blockade, three things must be proved; 1st, the existence of a blockade; 2d, that the party was duly notified of the fact; and 3dly, that he has violated it, either, 1st, by ingress, or, 2dly, by egress, with a cargo *laden* after the commencement of the blockade.

1st. Of the existence of a blockade.—A blockade is a circumvallation of a place by a belligerent, by which all foreign connection and correspondence is, as far as human force can effect it, to be entirely cut off, and the right of neutrals to engage in its traffick by importation or exportation is suspended. A blockade may, however, be *partial*, as well as *general*, as on the *land side*, or *sea side*; and in such case the blockade *legally* exists only, so far as it *actually* extends. Hence, where there is only a *maritime* blockade, the *interiour* communications and commerce of the country are no way subject to its operation, and vice versa.

A blockade may commence by the *simple fact* only, or by a publick *notification* from belligerent to neutral states, accompanied with the *fact*; for a declaration, unsupported by the fact, will neither establish nor extend it. In the case of a blockade *de facto*, when the *fact* ceases (otherwise than by accident or the shifting of the wind),

there is immediately an end of the blockade ; but where the fact is accompanied by a notification, though possibly the blockade may expire *de facto*, this is not hastily to be presumed, but on the contrary it is to be considered *prima facie* as existing, till the notification is revoked.

A blockade may be more or less rigorous, either for the single purpose of watching the military operations of the enemy and preventing the egress of their fleet,—or, on a more extended scale, to cut off all access of neutral vessels to the interdicted place, which alone is strictly and properly a blockade ; for the other is in truth no blockade at all, as far as neutrals are concerned. So, where a blockade has not been duly carried into effect, where ships have been stopped, examined, and suffered to go in ; or where they have received information from ships of the navy of the blockading power, that there was no blockade, no legal blockade exists, which will affect neutrals, under such circumstances, notwithstanding there has been a national declaration of it.

§2. Of the notification of a blockade.—And 1st. Where a blockade is accompanied with a publick declaration of its existence by the belligerent to foreign states, the effect of such notification must be to include all *the individuals* of the nations thus notified, to whom it is the duty of their respective governments to communicate it, even in foreign ports. A neutral master, therefore, can never be heard to aver against such a notification of a blockade, that he is ignorant of it. If he be really ignorant of it, it may be a subject of representation and complaint to his own government, and may raise a claim of compensation from them, but it can be no plea in the court of a belligerent.

It is not necessary that a notification should be made to every particular nation to affect its subjects. Where it is made to the principal states in Europe, it will in time affect the rest, not so much *proprio vigore*, or by virtue of the direct act, as in the way of *evidence*. It must in process of time reach them, and, though not directly made to them, must, when known, be considered as imposing the same observance of it on them.

2dly. Where a blockade commences *de facto*, it must be notified by the blockading force on the spot to those, who come from a distance and *are ignorant* of the fact. For if you can prove a previous knowledge of the fact in the neutral, a warning is an idle ceremony, and he may be liable to the consequences of a breach of blockade.

As to vessels coming out with cargoes, &c. from a blockaded port, it is unnecessary to prove any particular knowledge of the fact in the master to subject the property to confiscation, after the blockade has existed *de facto* any length of time. The continued fact is itself a sufficient notice, as it is impossible for those within to be ignorant of the forcible suspension of their commerce.

3d. Of the violation of a blockade.—And 1st. Where a blockade has been solemnly notified, not only an entry into the blockaded port, but the act of sailing to it, constitutes the offence, and subjects the property to confiscation. For a blockade, accompanied with a publick declaration, is presumed to continue till the declaration is revoked. An exception has been made in favour of neutral countries at a great distance from the ports,

which are in a state of blockade. As, from their situation, it is impossible that they should have constant information of the state of the blockade, whether it continue or be relaxed, it is not unnatural that they should send them provisionally to the blockaded ports, on the expectation, that the blockade may have been broken up, after a long continuance. The rigid application of the rule to them would impose a restriction on their commerce for months after neighbouring nations were enjoying a free trade. But this exception is allowed only on condition that a fair inquiry is made in the ports, which lie in the way, and not of the blockading squadron at the blockaded port. The conduct of the neutral in such cases ought to be such, as to excite confidence, and not suspicion; to prove that his provisional destination was fair, and not a guarded expedient of fraud.

2dly. Where a blockade commences and exists *de facto* only, there no presumption arises as to its continuance; and the ignorance of the party may be admitted, as an excuse for sailing on a doubtful and provisional destination. But, in this case, a fair intention will be presumed only, where a fair inquiry is made in the course of the voyage, whether the blockade had determined or not.

Although sailing with an intention of evading a blockade makes the offence complete, and it is not necessary to wait till the goods are actually endeavouring to enter the port under blockade; yet if the goods are not taken *in delicto* and in the actual prosecution of such a voyage, the penalty does not attach. Hence a deviation from the original destination before capture, with an intention to avoid the offence, protects the property from confiscation. For though the intention was complete from the moment the ship sailed on the destination, and, had it been taken previous to the variation, would have been subject to confiscation; yet, when the variation had actually taken place, however arising, it is not taken *in delicto*, or in the prosecution of an intention of landing goods at a blockaded port. So, where a vessel has sailed on a destination to a blockaded port, after a declaration of the blockade, and in the course of her voyage on inquiry of a fleet of the belligerent, whether the port be blockaded, is informed it is not, from that time a state of innocence commences, and, if taken in prosecution of her original voyage, she is not taken *in delicto*. The information thus given cannot be set up as a licence of authority, but may be regarded as intelligence affording reasonable ground of belief, and discharges her, as much as a deviation, from the penalty of the former offence.

A determined adherence to a first intention of entering into a port, after notice of a blockade, will subject a ship to confiscation. A blockade may be broken by obstinacy, as well as by fraud; and if a master says he must and will go into the blockaded port in defiance of notice, his owners must take the consequence of his conduct.

As a legal blockade exists only so far, as it actually extends in case of a maritime blockade, whether the shipment is to terminate, or was begun in a blockaded port by inland transmission of the goods from or to a free port, they are not subject to any penalty. In cases of goods shipped from an enemy's port, that is to be considered, as the place of shipping, where the goods first become connected with the

ship, though conveyed by land or canals from a blockaded port. In the case of goods destined to an enemy's port, that is to be considered as the real destination, where they are to be discharged, though their ulteriour destination may be by land or canals to a blockaded port.

2. Not only ingress or entry into a blockaded port, &c. is a breach of blockade, but an egress or departure from a blockaded port, under certain circumstances, is equally criminal.

Where a ship has entered an enemy's port before the commencement of a blockade, she may at any time sail away in ballast, as, from her neutral character and lawful entrance, she is not herself the object of blockade. She may also retire with a cargo, laden on board *before* the blockade begun. But as a blockade is intended to suspend the entire commerce of a place, and as a neutral is no more at liberty to assist the traffick of exportation, than importation, the rule insisted on by the blockading power is, that a neutral ship departing can only take away a cargo *bona fide purchased and delivered* before a knowledge of the blockade,—as the purchase, lading, or continuing to lade a cargo, after this is an unlawful interference to assist the commerce of the enemy, and a violation of the blockade.

As a transfer of a ship from one neutral to another is in no manner connected with the commerce of a blockaded port, it is no ground for confiscation of the ship, which has sailed, after the transfer, in ballast. So where goods are sent into a port before a blockade, and are reshipped by order of the neutral proprietor during a blockade, they have been always exempted from confiscation. For the same rule, which permits neutral merchants to withdraw their ships from a blockaded port, extends also with equal justice to merchandize, sent in *before* the blockade, and withdrawn bona fide by the neutral proprietor.

A vessel, which breaks a blockade by egress, is not discharged of the penalty by escaping or avoiding the blockading force, but continues liable to confiscation till the termination of her voyage.

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*For the Anthology.*

## *REMARKER, No.* 19.

I give thee thanks in part of thy deserts,
And will with deeds requite thy gentleness. SHAKES.

THE most detestable being in creation is he, who lives only for himself; who borrows, but never pays; who is willing to receive every thing, and give nothing; who is pleased only at his own success, vulnerable only by his own calamities, and hates his benefactors in the moment of tasting their bounty. Gratitude, on the contrary, ranks among the loveliest virtues. It exhibits our nature in a most favourable point of light: it begets confidence among friends, disarms an enemy of anger, and warms the heart of coldness and indifference: it is a fountain of life to the breast where it dwells,

and it diffuses sympathy and joy over the various departments of social life.

It were easy to declaim on this topick ; but to display the proper motives and expression of gratitude is a more serious task. As in the article of religion, not every one who says, I believe, may be classed with the faithful, so neither will the mere delivery of thanks entitle a person to the honours of gratitude. A beneficent and useful life is the best testimony of a grateful disposition. Let me not be understood as discouraging the decent forms of oral civility. When they come from the heart, and are gracefully presented, like the distillations of mercy, they bless both him who bestows and him who accepts them : nothing scarcely is pleasanter, than the language of obligation ; and the sweetest musick in your ear is the voice of him, who acknowledges you a benefactor.

It is, however, of more importance that our hearts should be improved, than our vanity excited ; and the community is more interested, that the idle should be made industrious, and the intemperate sober, than that they should be feasted with the viands of applause, and regaled with the incense of adulation. Words are not always the honest representatives of thoughts : they are sometimes no more to be regarded, than the sound of an instrument, which is destitute of both intention and power. Exhortation is easy ; but practice is difficult : the first may be given from the basest motives ; but in the last there is no deception. Nay, a man may entertain you with handsome speeches, and specious promises, whilst he is meditating mischief. But when you observe a person who, with or without professions, is constantly adapting his labours to the minds, the wants, and condition of those around him ; when he is as ready to repress the insolence of the proud, as to elevate the head of humble merit ; when, regardless of the popular odium, he boldly maintains the cause of publick justice ; and when, resisting the pressure of indolence and the calls of pleasure, he uniformly and vigorously fulfils the offices of private friendship, and his duties to the state, he then prefers an unquestionable claim to gratitude, and to the dearest privileges in the gift of society.

If this beneficence of character is not the happiest expression of gratitude, the maxims of the wise, which we have been taught to respect, for the regulation of social manners, have no solid foundation. In them we are instructed not to trust appearances. They report, that there is such a mixture of good and bad, of falsehood and truth in almost every one with whom we converse, and in almost all the actions we see, that it is the part of prudence to suspect the soundness of brilliant professions, until proved by deeds, which have the stamp of utility.

An enemy of metaphysicks, I hope not to be suspected of being pupil to either Edwards or Godwin ; yet I venture to pronounce, that the most just is, commonly, the most grateful man. There are certain propensities of our nature which, though not wholly of the sensitive kind, seem nevertheless to have been given rather for the preservation, than the improvement of the species. The man, who can hardly distinguish between the calls of hunger and the operations of intellect, has nearly the same strength of parental affec-

tion, as his enlightened and philosophick neighbour ; and publicans and sinners, as well as gentlemen and christians, have their favourites whom they love, and their dependents whom they oblige.

Pirates and thieves, too oft with courage grac'd,
Show us how ill that virtue may be plac'd :
'Tis our complexion makes us chaste or brave,
Justice from reason and from heaven we have :
All other virtues dwell but in the blood,
That in the soul, and gives the name of good. WALL.

My friend Beneficus is such a foe to a prattling sort of gratitude, in vogue with the vulgar, that he sometimes receives favours with a surly countenance ; but he always takes care that their authors, their relatives, or the world shall be duly recompensed. I have known him benefitted by a neighbour, whom, instead of thanking, he gently reproved for a blemish in his manners, or a fault in his conduct. In the view of superficial examiners and transient acquaintances Beneficus, indeed, hazards his reputation for benevolent dispositions ; but, although he is commonly called grave and taciturn, and is willing to be thought so, yet the consciousness of continually exercising his mind for the comfort of his friends and the good of the commonwealth, insures him present happiness and a future reward.

Let him, therefore, who is emulous of understanding and performing the duty of gratitude, in its full extent, learn to be beneficent. Let him light the candle of his neighbour, and the lustre of his own will be increased.

*Homo qui erranti comiter monstrat viam,*
*Quasi lumen de suo lumine accendat, facit,*
*Nihilominùs ipsi luceat, cum illi accenderit.*

The spirit of this advice is applicable to all, who may take the trouble of reading the Remarker. None of us, perhaps, is so poor and friendless, as not to have experienced, in seasons of weakness, misfortune, or pain, the sympathy and aid of godlike parents, skilful physicians, and generous benefactors. What is the remuneration, which Providence demands of us for these offices of love ? It says to us, 'Arise, and minister to those members of the community, who are sick and have none to heal them ; who are oppressed, and have none to plead their cause ; who are in darkness, and have none to enlighten them ; who are objects of compassion, and yet have no compassion on themselves.' In our commercial intercourse, in our festive scenes, in our literary associations, on the floor of debate, at the altar, by the fireside, how numerous our opportunities for contributing to the integrity of individuals, the riches of our country, and the stability of its freedom ! From a sense of gratitude to the Author of society, and to the instruments and imitators of his beneficence, who are daily blessing us, let us learn to value justly, and to use discreetly, the rights and pleasures of social life. So shall they increase in number and in worth, until we shall be fitted for the intercourse and joys of a more perfect condition.

*March* 21, 1807.

*For the Anthology.*

# ORIGINAL LETTERS

## FROM AN AMERICAN TRAVELLER IN EUROPE TO HIS FRIENDS IN THIS COUNTRY.

## LETTER THIRD.

*Rome, February 1st*, 1805.

DEAR SIR,

THE day before I left Naples the keeper of the Museum at Portici arrived, and gave me an opportunity of seeing that very interesting and valuable collection of antiquities. Here are to be seen the objects of curiosity, discovered in Herculaneum and in Pompeia. The inspection of these articles gives us more real light, respecting the state both of the fine and useful arts in Italy near the time of the christian æra, than can be acquired by the most diligent study of all the ancient books, which have escaped the ravages of time and ignorance. It would be an endless task to describe all or even the greater part of these interesting objects; I shall therefore make a few remarks upon such things only, as particularly drew my attention.

Under the corridor of the Museum are two fine equestrian statues, executed in marble. They are said to represent the two Balbus's, the father and son, and are inferiour to no statues of the same nature, except the celebrated one of Marcus Aurelius. They are the more valuable, as no other equestrian statues in *marble* have ever been discovered. They were found near two pedestals in front of the theatre of Herculaneum, and no doubt served as ornaments to that magnificent edifice. One circumstance is truly astonishing: they were dug out of a solid mass of lava, much harder than marble, and yet escaped uninjured. A great variety of other statues and busts, both in marble and bronze, were also found in this city; but there are none, which particularly deserve attention, or at least none, which are superiour to the statues found in other parts of Italy.

One of the most interesting classes of objects, which the discovery of this ancient city has afforded us, and of which we could have formed no opinion without this fortunate discovery, are the paintings upon the walls of their houses, and which with infinite labour and expense have been cut out and transported to Portici, where they are secured under glass cases. They would undoubtedly have appeared to more advantage, if they could have been suffered to remain in the places in which they were found, and where two thousand years of uninterrupted quiet seemed to give them at least a prescriptive and possessory title. But it was feared, and perhaps with propriety, that although they had been perfectly preserved so long as the external air was wholly excluded, yet that they would soon fade and perish, when exposed to its effects.

The inferences drawn from them by connoisseurs and antiquaries, with regard to the degree of per-

fection, which the ancients had attained in the art of painting, have, you know, been very various. Some have contended, that they prove the ancients to have been almost wholly ignorant of perspective, and extremely inferiour to the moderns in their knowledge and use of colours. Others, among whom you will find Dr. Moore, allege, that such inferences are extremely unfair, as much so, as it would be to take the specimens of *house or sign painting* among us, as fair examples of our progress in the art. They say further, that we ought rather to conclude, that if the inferiour painters, who were employed only in painting in fresco for the ornament of their houses, had made such high attainments, Appelles and Zeuxis must have exceeded any of our boasted artists: and they have added, that, as we admit the superiority of the ancients in statuary and architecture, it is absurd to suppose, that they had made so little progress in their sister art. Permit me to add to these arguments, that both Herculaneum and Pompeia were very inferiour cities, in point both of wealth and population, and we ought not to expect to find in them the works of the first Roman and Grecian artists.

It has been often asserted, that the ancients had little or *no* knowledge of the principles of perspective. From my own observation, I am enabled to contradict the universality of this proposition; but it must be admitted, that it is the point in which they appear to fail most. In the "dessein" and drapery, as well as in giving durability to their colours, they are allowed by all parties to excel. A celebrated French writer makes some observations on this subject, which I think will be interesting to you. He says, 'that all the paintings of Herculaneum prove, that the authors of them were not great painters, that they were ignorant of the natural effect of vision, and were not sufficiently acquainted with the rules of *perspective*. We know, however, that these rules were known to the ancients. Vituvius, in the preface to his VIIth book, says positively, that Democritus and Anaxagoras had treated of perspective in their account of the scenery of the Greeks.' On the whole he remarks, that these ancient paintings have an easy, bold, and free style; that the manner is light, very much after the fashion of our modern theatrical decorations, and that every thing indicates great practice in the artists, and an education in a good school.

I shall bring home two or three specimens, by which you may be able to judge how far these opinions are correct.

The Museum contains a vast number and variety of the articles of furniture, and moveables, in use among the Romans. There is one room, which is fitted up as it is presumed a Roman kitchen would have been, and all the culinary and other utensils of domestick use are naturally arranged in it. It is, I can assure you, a very curious and interesting display. The earthen and glass vessels are in a perfect state of preservation, those of copper considerably so, while those of iron are very much impaired. The ancient Romans made use of baked earthen vessels for almost every culinary and household purpose. The forms of them are so similar to those of the moderns, that you can entertain no doubt as to the uses to which they were applied. The quality and colour of the earthen

ware are almost the same as those of our common ware, manufactured at Charlestown. There are no specimens of porcelain, and as these would have more easily resisted the effects of time, I think there is good reason to conclude, that the ancients were ignorant of the art of making this article. The most perfect earthen vessels of the ancients are the celebrated *Etruscan* vases, of which vast numbers have been found in Herculaneum, and the forms and drawings of which are much admired by antiquaries. Their form is generally that of an urn, though infinitely varied; they have commonly two handles, opposite to each other, and are externally ornamented with figures of men or animals, executed with taste. The outer surface, though hard, has not that glazed surface, which so much disfigures our earthen vessels. They are not painted in colours. The ground is of a dark brown, approaching black, and the figures are of a lighter brown, and appear as if the colour had been produced simply by covering the figures, during the operation of baking them.

The copper kettles, saucepans, and kitchen utensils, have undergone in modern times but little improvement, or indeed alteration. The iron tools of husbandry or for different arts and manufactures are very little changed, at least among the descendants of the Romans in Italy.

You see in this collection hoes, spades, shovels, hatchets, pruning-knives, &c. the forms of which so exactly resemble those in present use, that you can hardly realize that they were handled by men who lived before the Christian æra. It is not indeed strange, that the same wants should lead to the same discoveries and the same means of supplying them; but our philosophers have taught us, that man is a very improving being, and that he is advancing fast to a state of perfection: we are therefore surprised to find, that in many things, which contribute to his luxury, comfort, or even existence, no improvements have been made for so many ages.

There are other things in the Museum, which are more *curious*, than useful, as they give us no information relative to the state of the arts. You see grain, pease, beans, and dough prepared for baking, which were so thoroughly carbonized, that they have preserved their form and appearance most perfectly. To those, who are acquainted with the imperishable nature of carbonized bodies, these facts will not be surprising. It is to this same principle, that we are indebted for the conservation of the manuscripts, of which I shall give you some account in the close of the present letter.

I noticed the iron weights, used by the Romans, which are precisely like those used by our merchants. They are of an oblong shape, with an handle in the top, having the amount of each weight cut or stamped upon them in very legible characters. There was formerly in this Museum an immense variety of gold, silver, and copper coins and medals, esteemed very useful in aid of history and chronology; but a dread of the rapacity of the French, who always exhibit a strong predilection for antiquities (especially those under the form of the *precious metals*) has induced their very good friend and ally, the king of the Two Sicilies, to remove them to Palermo. There are still, however, many copper, and some gold

and silver coins, which give a very good idea of the progress of the Romans in the art of coining from their earliest to their latest history. I was exceedingly impressed with the gradual improvement and final deterioration of these coins and medals. They kept pace so exactly with the other arts, and with the changes of the manners and character of the Romans, that they appeared to me an epitome of the Roman history. During the consular government the coins and medals were simple, rude, and massy, but strong and useful. They correspond to the unpolished vigour of the Roman character in that period of their history. In the Augustan age they began to assume a more finished and elegant appearance, and they continued to improve, till, in the reigns of Vespasian and Titus, they appear to have attained their highest degree of perfection.—From that time they began to decline, till, in the age of Constantine, they bore the evident marks of decayed and depraved taste; and from this latter period, like all the other productions of art, they became degraded, and sunk into a style of barbarity and rudeness, correspondent to the corrupt and savage state of manners, which prevailed during the lower empire.

Among the many interesting objects, which the discovery of these long-hidden cities has brought to light, there are none more curious, and I *still hope*, that none will prove more useful to the cause of literature, than the ancient manuscripts.

The workmen employed in excavating one of the ancient palaces in Herculaneum, about seventy years since, discovered these manuscripts in one of the apartments. They were at first supposed to be sticks of wood burnt to charcoal, which they exactly resemble. But their number, and the similarity of their appearance, induced a more accurate examination. At first no means of getting at their contents were employed, but splitting them with a knife. This, while it discovered their value, rendered them totally useless, and incapable of being examined. A monk, however, soon discovered and brought into practice a method of unrolling them; but so tedious was the process, and so sluggish and unenterprizing were the Neapolitans, that, in a period of seventy years, they had unrolled and decyphered but about twenty manuscripts out of sixteen hundred.

In consequence of the political and intimate connection, which has of late existed between the courts of Naples and London, the Prince of Wales requested and received permission to send his chaplain, the Reverend Mr. Hayter, to assist in the process of decyphering and publishing these manuscripts. Since his arrival, within two years they have completed one hundred of them. I have had the pleasure to see this gentleman frequently, and he unites to a deep and thorough knowledge of the dead languages, of which he is an enthusiastick admirer, the most friendly, open, and agreeable manners. I met him at the Museum, and he was so obliging, as to explain to me the whole process of unrolling and decyphering these long-lost works.

The persons who are employed in unrolling them, and those also who copy them, are wholly ignorant even of the characters, in which they are written. They are selected merely for their accuracy and care, and, in the operation, proceed like machines.

Each person, employed in unrolling, is furnished with a moveable cylinder, which revolves on its own axis. The artist takes one of the rolls of the burnt papyrus (which are usually about one foot in width, and of a length varying according to the size of the treatise or work copied upon them), and having found the end of the papyrus, he attaches to it by glue a great number of silk threads. These threads are then passed round the cylinder, and, by turning the cylinder gently, the leaf of the papyrus is gradually raised from the scroll. But as the papyrus is extremely slender, and incapable of sustaining its own weight, it is fortified by gold-beaters' skin, which is attached to it by some glutinous fluid. When fifteen or twenty lines are thus raised, they are separated from the roll, and a workman, totally ignorant of the language, copies every letter of it. These letters, held in such a manner as that the light strikes upon them obliquely, are perfectly legible, as much so as the letters on burnt papers, which we have often seen. I observed them, and can assure you, that the process is perfect, accompanied by no uncertainty whatsoever. The Rev. Mr. Hayter constantly superintends the copyists. After the copy is finished, it is precisely engraved, and an exact fac-simile is struck off with all the imperfections and defects of the original. These fac-similes are preserved, and will be published page for page with the original work, that literary men may be enabled to judge how far Mr. Hayter and the other collaters have acted with judgment and fidelity.

When I speak of *defects*, you will understand such *only* as must, and do constantly arise from the weakness of the papyrus; for in the original manuscripts there are no imperfections. They are written with wonderful accuracy, and indeed beauty. The letters are all *measured*, and are equi-distant, and all the lines contain the same number of letters, so that this regularity very much assists the collaters in supplying any defects.

One circumstance is very fortunate, and that is, the practice of the ancients to give the title-page and the name of the author at the *end* of the work: for, as the end is always at the centre of the roll, it is, in almost every instance, preserved; whereas much the greater part of the manuscripts have lost some of the exteriour folds, and, if the name had been written on them, we might never have been able to ascertain who were the authors. This practice of placing the title-page and author's name at the end of the work was of long duration, and continued some time after the art of printing was introduced. I have met with several works, printed in that manner.

None of the missing works of the ancient historians have yet been discovered. In general the treatises, which have been unrolled, have been the works of authors, whose names are unknown to us, and probably therefore of no great value. There have been however found some works of Philodemus, a Grecian of some reputation, and one work of Phædrus. I found Mr. Hayter to-day in raptures at the discovery of a perfect work of Philodemus. It was a moral treatise; the subject, "Death."

I applied for a fac-simile of one of these treatises, or at least a part of one of them, for the college at Cambridge; but it was inadmissible. There are no people so jealous of their fame, as these lite-

rary gentlemen : they choose to have the honour of handing these works to the publick, without any partition.

I met with a very curious monumental inscription, under a corridor in the Vatican. It is upon a block of stone, resembling in its form an altar, and which was undoubtedly dug up in its present form. How long it had been interred, I know not ; but I wish some of our literary gentlemen would explain, how it found its way to Latium, and, if a forgery, what could be the motives for it.

*Inscription.*

PARIDI ALESSANDRO
PRIAMI. R. G. FIL. TROJANI.

Mr. Hayter remarked, that if it had been an original inscription in the time of Paris, it would have been in the Grecian or in the Phœnician character. He conjectured, that it was a forgery of the 14th century, of which he says many exist. Yours, &c.

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# *BIOGRAPHY.*

*For the Anthology.*

## SKETCH OF THE CHARACTER OF PROFESSOR DALZELL.

DIED, at Edinburgh, in December last, ANDREW DALZELL, A. M. F. R. S. Edin. professor of the Greek language in the university of Edinburgh, keeper of the university library, principal clerk to the General Assembly of the church of Scotland, one of the secretaries of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c. Mr. Dalzell was, certainly, one of the most amiable men and the most eminent classical scholars, that have ever adorned a Scottish university. He was born about the year 1750, at a farm-house in the parish of Ratho, a few miles west from Edinburgh. His father was a respectable and industrious husbandman. He enjoyed, at an early age, the benefits of instruction in the first principles of classical knowledge, at the publick school of his native parish. He went, thence, to the schools and the university of Edinburgh. The gentleness and purity of his manners, the discretion and propriety of his conduct, his enthusiasm for sound and elegant literature, and his extraordinary proficiency in it, recommended him to the particular notice of the late Earl of Lauderdale, when that nobleman was looking out for a tutor to his eldest son, the negociator who has so recently foiled the artifices of Talleyrand, Clarke, and Champagny, at Paris. He superintended the private studies and amusements of his noble pupil ; assisted his exercises in the university ; was with him in hearing the lectures of Millar, the famous juridical professor, of Glasgow ; and afterwards accompanied him to Paris. Upon his return from the continent, he was, at the recommendation of the late Earl of Lauderdale, appointed to succeed Mr. Hunter in the professorship of the Greek language at Edinburgh. From this hour, began his career of great and illustrious publick usefulness. Classical learning had been on the decline at Edinburgh, from the time when the publick lectures ceased to be read in the Latin language, and when French literature, and composition in English came to be much in

vogue. Even while the Foulis's were publishing their famous editions of the Greek Classicks at Glasgow, and while Moore, one of the most ingenious philologists, and the most profound and accurate Greek scholar, of the age, was teaching in the university of that city: Grecian learning was very little regarded at Edinburgh. The students in Divinity were content if they learned Greek enough to read the Greek Testament; candidates for the higher honours in Medicine, sought just as much of this language, as should enable them to spell out the Aphorisms of Hippocrates: none else cared for Greek. Mr. Dalzell, from the moment of his appointment, thought only, how to communicate that passion which he himself felt, for the richest and most polished language of antiquity. He adopted the use of Moore's Grammar, the shortest, the most accurate, and the most easily intelligible that had been published. To supply the deficiency of its latter part, he dictated lessons, short, perspicuous, elegant, as the Rules of Moore. His supplementary Syntax of the prepositions, and other parts of speech, was admirable. He explained the passages of Herodotus, of Xenophon, of Thucydides, of Homer, of which the sentiments and imagery were the most adapted to win upon young minds, with a clearness of intelligence, and with a sweet and ardent, yet modest enthusiasm, which it was impossible to resist. Of a frame of mind remarkably congenial with that of Plato, he took delight to select the beauties of that philosopher's Dialogues, for the use of his pupils. He instructed them in the clearest and most lively parts of the Critical and Ethical Tracts of Aristotle. The tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides furnished scenes, of which the interest particularly assisted his endeavours in favour of Grecian learning. From the Lyrick and Pastoral Poets, from Æsop, Ælian, Theophrastus, Lucian, from the Epigrammatists, and especially from Demosthenes and the other orators, he culled whatever was the most intelligible and attractive to young minds, with a diligence, and a fond solicitude almost without example. These selections formed the course of readings, in which it was his desire to engage and detain his students for at least four or five sessions. At first, he only indicated what books he wished the students to provide themselves with, for the readings in their respective classes. But, the variety and the expense were too great: and his other endeavours would have been defeated, if his zeal for the revival of Greek learning, his tender interest in the instruction of his pupils, and the conscience he put in the discharge of his duty, had not excited him to compile and print, at a considerable expense, and with extraordinary pains and labour, a series of Collections out of the Greek authors, including all those passages which he wished to explain in teaching the language. These were printed in several volumes, under the titles of *Collectanea Minora* and *Collectanea Majora*. He added in each volume, short notes in Latin, explanatory of the difficult places. The Greek Texts were printed with singular accuracy. The Notes are admirable for brevity, perspicuity, and judgment. His Latinity, in the Notes, and in short Prefaces to the several parts of the Collection, is the most remarkable for delicate propriety and genuine power of classical expression, perhaps of any thing that has been, for many

years, written, in Great-Britain, in a learned language. He, at the same time, composed and read to the students, a series of lectures on the language and antiquities, the philosophy and the history, the literature, the eloquence, the poetry, and the fine arts of the Greeks. Those lectures were the result of the unremitting study of the Grecian authors themselves ; of a diligent comparison of those originals with every collateral illustration which was to be found ; of intimate acquaintance with the best modern writers in history, philosophy, poetry, and criticism. The composition was unaffectedly elegant. The train of the lectures was beautifully consecutive and systematick. Mr. Dalzell was careful to read them with a slow, distinct, emphatick, and yet easy elocution, the most convenient to the ear and the understanding. There was a suavity in his voice and manner, than which nothing could well be more attractive. His enthusiasm for every excellence appertaining to the Greeks, was, from time to time, breaking out in emotions affecting his voice and manner. And it was attempted with an ingenious modesty ; sometimes timmid, as if he had been in the presence of the most distinguished judges ; and certainly, the most amiable, in the demeanour of a professor before his pupils. His success has been, by these means, almost complete. He communicated among the youth at that university, a large portion of his own enthusiasm for Grecian learning. He persuaded many of them to study Greek for twice or thrice the length of time, which it was before usual to devote to that language. It became a fashion among most of the students in the university, whatever their ultimate objects of pursuit, to resort, with eagerness, to hear his lectures. He accomplished a sort of restoration of classical, and even of elegant literature in general at Edinburgh. He gave, within his own province, a celebrity to the university which was the means of drawing many strangers from England and other parts, to pursue their studies in it. He contributed to fill the professions of the church, of the law, and of medicine throughout Scotland, with men who, after they left the university, had but to continue an easy attention to Grecian learning, amid their necessary relaxations from professional duties, in order to attain to the most consummate skill in it. And yet, his fondness for his favourite literature was not satisfied. He has frequently complained to the writer of this article ; that the passion which he inspired for the study of Greek, proved, usually, but transient and fugitive. Many of his favourite pupils, when he happened again to meet them, after they had gone but perhaps two or three years from college, would severely disappoint his hopes by appearing to have entirely neglected classical learning from the moment they left the university. With young clergymen in particular, he could not help being particularly offended, to find, that, from the time of their obtaining livings, they generally discontinued all regular study, not only of Greek, but even of every branch of philology and science. Many of the students at his classes were very young. Just emancipated from the school and the rod ; and certain, that, at college, they were not to be beaten ; under any professor but himself, such boys were, in the hours of instruc-

tion, too often inattentive, tumultuous, full of "quips and cranks," and unseasonable glee, more disposed to make merry with the teacher's solicitude for their improvement, than to profit by it. But the mingled dignity and gentleness of his manner had power to charm the giddiest and most froward boy to his book and to his seat. There was a witchery in his address which could prevail alike over sloth and over levity. Those who but a moment before, and in a different class-room, were noisy, restless, negligent, wantonly troublesome, no sooner came into Mr. Dalzell's presence, than they were, for the hour, transformed, as by magick, into the most modest and quiet young gentlemen, and the most attentive students one could desire to see. He treated them with a gracious politeness and respect which, in a manner, compelled them to respect both him and themselves. He was careful to make a spirit of piety and virtue pervade the whole course of his instructions. It was gentle, insinuating, and pleasing. It breathed itself into young minds without harassing or disgusting them. His concluding lecture every session was, in particular, a favourite with the students. To hear it many would defer, even for several weeks, their departure for the country. It reviewed the studies of the session; exhorted to ardent diligence during the vacation; pointed out the books the fittest to be then read; indicated the proper exercises in composition; dwelt affectingly upon the charms of classical literature, and of virtue; and, in a strain of the finest Christian and Platonick enthusiasm, taught the heart to elevate itself, through the survey of the works of nature, up to nature's God. On this occasion, the Professor and his pupils never parted but in tears. Such was his conduct as a Professor for a period of, I think, nearly thirty years. His pupils regarded him with the affection due to a parent, and usually met from him the beneficence of a father's love. Hundreds have been introduced by him into situations as tutors, and into other honourable connexions, which proved the means of their subsequent advantageous and useful establishment in the world. His advice was confided in by parents, in respect to their children's education, more than (I believe) that of any other man in any university, or other seminary, in the three kingdoms. Upon the institution of the royal society of Edinburgh, he was persuaded to undertake the functions of secretary to its literary class. At the death of the learned professor of oriental languages, Dr. James Robertson, Mr. Dalzell was chosen to succeed him as keeper of the publick library of the university. With an exception in favour of a layman, which was, I believe, without example, he was chosen to succeed Dr. John Drysdale in the highly respectable appointment of principal clerk to the general assembly of the church of Scotland. He discharged the functions of all these offices with a zeal, a fidelity, and a masterly ability which gave universal satisfaction, and have never, indeed, been exceeded in any one of them. He was, as may well be imagined, the pride and delight of the private society in which he chiefly lived. Among his particular friends were, the late Dr. Gilbert Stuart, Dr. Russel, known as the judicious compiler of the History of Modern Europe; Mr. Liston, who

has so long and with such distinction served his country in a diplomatick capacity ; Mr. Porter, an eminent Russian merchant ; the late Dr. William Robertson, the historian ; the late venerable Lord Monboddo,well known as an amiable enthusiast in Grecian literature ; Mr. Dugald Stuart, that most learned, ingenuous,and modest of the members of the Scottish universities ; Mr. Professor Christison, and many others, the most eminent for virtue, rank, and talents. Amidst so many publick duties, Mr. Dalzell's application to private studies was indefatigable. The composition and continual improvement of his lectures, with the compilation of his *Collectanea* or Αναλεκτα cost him prodigious pains and labour. His correspondence with Heyne and other men of learning abroad, encroached a good deal upon his hours of leisure. He has enriched the volumes of the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh with a variety of interesting communications in biography or on subjects of erudition. He was the editor of the posthumous Sermons of his father-in law, the learned and judicious Dr. John Drysdale. He gave a value to Chevalier's Description of the Plain of Troy, by translating and illustrating it. His application was, indeed, far too intense : but so very much was his heart in his studies and his official duties, that no tender suggestions of his friends, no counsels of his physicians, could divert him from them. He was in stature among the tallest of the middle size ; his complexion was fair ; his aspect mild, sweet, and unavoidably interesting ; there was peculiar power of ingenuous expression in the modest, almost timid, serenity of his blue eye ; his features were plump and full, but without heaviness or grossness ; his address, in accosting a stranger, or in the general course of conversation, was singularly graceful, captivating, and yet unpresuming. He took little exercise, but in occasional walks in the King's Park, which was the rural scene the most easily accessible from his residence in the college. An attick propriety, a golden moderation, seemed to pervade all his habits in common life. He was eminently temperate, yet hospitable and convivial. In the tenderest connexion of domestick life he was truly fortunate, having married the eldest daughter of the Rev. Dr. John Drysdale, a lady whose temper, taste, good sense, accomplishments, and turn of manners, were entirely in unison with his own. She survives, with the children of their marriage, to mourn his premature loss.

Ergo Quintilium perpetuus sopor
Urget ! cui pudor, et justitiæ soror,
Incorrupta fides, nudaque veritas,
Quando ullum invenient parem ?
Multis ille quidem flebilis occidit
Nulli flebilior quam *mihi*—.

*London*, *Jan.* 1807.

*For the Anthology.*

## PROFESSOR LUZAC.

[The following letter, from a gentleman of high respectability, residing in Holland, was addressed to the late President of the United States. It contains the relation of an event of the most afflictive nature to the friends of humanity, of freedom, and of virtue. To the people of New-England, who recollect with reverence and affection the pilgrimage of their parents, the city of Leyden was a spot, peculiarly interesting; and to all those, who know any thing of the American Revolution, and feel any attachment to its principles, the name and character of JOHN LUZAC will ever be dear and venerable. He descended from one of those virtuous and persecuted families, which, in the reign of Louis the 14th, took refuge in Holland from the violence of that religious fanaticism, which will forever disgrace the annals of that prince. Educated to the profession of the law, and highly distinguished in its practice at an early period of his life, he had for many years relinquished these forensick pursuits to discharge the duties of Professor of the Greek Language and History at the University of Leyden. He had also been the principal editor of the Leyden Gazette, a paper equally celebrated for the elegance of its composition, for the accuracy of its narratives, and for the comprehension, penetration, boldness, and correctness of its political views. In the following letter the voice of ardent and sorrowing friendship speaks the language of strict and unexaggerated truth. There are men of louder fame, and more extensive influence yet remaining; but the civilized world cannot produce a man, uniting that assemblage of qualities, necessary to form a profound classical scholar, an accomplished statesman, and a virtuous and honourable man, in more perfect harmony, than was exhibited in the character of JOHN LUZAC.]

*JOHN ADAMS, ESQ.*

SIR,

INTIMATELY connected in a disinterested friendship of many years with Mr. JOHN LUZAC, Professor at Leyden, who often confided to me the marks of esteem he received from you, his respected friend, as well as of the immortal Washington, I now take the mournful task to announce to you his death, in a dreadful manner, by the explosion of a barge with gunpowder, that laid, contrary to the laws, in the centre of the city of Leyden,... the two-thirds and best part of which is ruined by the force of it, which is to be conceived by the quantity, being thirty thousand weight. His house is dashed to pieces; his children were saved before it fell down. His absence from thence, of about five minutes, makes it almost certain, that he was, at the fatal time, at the place where the barge laid. Thousands perished with him, and the town is a heap of rubbish. The churches and a considerable number of houses threaten to fall, and are taking down to prevent more mischief. This catastrophe took place on the 12th instant, at four o'clock in the afternoon. Not fifty houses are left, without being damaged.

Mr. Luzac, great by his profound learning, by his unrelenting assiduity and labour, and by his incorruptible honesty, was reckoned to be the greatest, deepest, and most virtuous politician in

Europe. Neglected by the intriguing herd, they did him all the evil they dared ; they feared his piercing eye, and wounded him in the dark. He disdained and withstood them on all points. His enemies were those of his unhappy country, whose fall he tried to prevent ; but his voice was stifled, his principles calumniated, the spirit of party, of ambition, of self-interest, and intrigue prevailed, and his country was ruined. Even those, whom he had instructed and fed, became his oppressors. The more he was ill-treated and persecuted, the greater he became in the eyes of those, that saw him act ;—that were sensible of his virtue, of his wisdom, of his merit ;—the greater he became in the eyes of the Almighty God, whom he always fervently served, and who, judging him to have fulfilled the hard task he had given him, took him home in a moment....to everlasting felicity !

He left to his friends three sons ; the eldest, of about eighteen years of age, bred under the parental eye in the school of wisdom and learning, promises to become the successor of his great father's merits. The second of 14, and the youngest of 10 years, promise both also well. They entered early in the school of adversity, having lost a few months ago their tender and beloved mother by an apoplexy, very suddenly and very unexpectedly. He left them, with his great example, a moderate fortune, and the benevolence of his friends and admirers, deeply wounded by his loss.

Full of respect to you,
I remain your most
Obedt. servant,
******.

*Jan.* 17*th*, 1807.

P.S. I inclose this to my friends, Messrs. James & Thomas H. Perkins of Boston, desiring them to forward it to you, and after they calculate it to be in your hands, to have it placed in one of the best newspapers ; as America is yet the country where such a man can be duly appreciated.

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*For the Anthology.*

## *SILVA, No.* 25.

*Sylva* gerit, frondes. OVID.

ARMSTRONG.

POETRY, at no time, has possessed more admirers, than in the present age. But it may be asked, is our taste, in this charming art, correct ? Do we judge of a poem, as Aristotle, Quintilian, and Horace would have judged of it ? What would they have said of the extravagant encomiums passed on the vulgar emptiness of a *Bloomfield*, on the crude conceptions and sleep-inspiring versification of a *Southey*, on the unintelligible fustian of a *Della Crusca*, and on the numberless poetical 'Gorgons, and Hydras, and Chimeras dire,' which the 'monster-breeding' breasts of our modern bards have produced ?

Modern poems are a species of romance in metre ; and the sentimental trash of a Circulating Library, turned into verse, would possess equal merit, and excite equal admiration.

It is not to be wondered at, since the publick taste is thus perverted, that poems of sterling merit,

which bear the stamp of classical elegance and correctness, should be left to moulder on our shelves. Our sickly appetite is too much cloyed with sweetmeats to relish substantial food. Hence our standard authors are no longer read by the profound criticks of the day; and the whimsical novelties of lyrical ballad-mongers and trifling sonnetteers are preferred to the majesty of Milton, the vigour of Dryden, and the brilliant sense and correct harmony of Pope.

Armstrong is among those bards, whom Johnson, from caprice, or prejudice, or forgetfulness, has excluded from his list of English poets. And yet I will venture to affirm, that *The Art of preserving Health* is inferiour to no didactick poem in any language, with the sole exception of the *Georgics*, the most perfect production of the most finished of poets, to which it bears a very striking resemblance.

Virgil divides his poem into four books, which treat respectively of *ploughing*, *planting*, *cattle*, and *bees*. On each of these subjects he selects the best precepts, and intersperses the whole with beautiful descriptions and interesting episodes, adorned with the most polished and harmonious versification.

Armstrong, in like manner, divides his poem into the same number of books, which treat respectively of four circumstances, on which health greatly depends; viz. *air*, *diet*, *exercise*, and the *passions*. The whole poem is animated with poetical description, and written in a style truly chaste, terse, and classical. The fever and ague one would scarcely think capable of poetical embellishment. But observe what the hand of a master can effect!

'Far on a rustick throne of dewy turf,
With baneful fogs her aching temples bound,
*Quartana* there presides; a meagre fiend,
Begot by Eurus, when his brutal force
Compress'd the slothful Naiad of the fens.
From such a mixture sprung, this fitful pest
With feverish blasts subdues the sick'ning land.
Cold tremors come, with mighty love of rest,
Convulsive yawnings, lassitude, and pains
That sting the burthen'd brows, fatigue the loins,
And rack the joints, and every torpid limb.
Then parching heat succeeds, till copious sweats
O'erflow; a short relief from former ills.
Beneath repeated shocks the wretches pine;
The vigour sinks, the habit melts away;
The chearful, pure, and animated bloom
Dies from the face with squalid atrophy
Devour'd, in sallow melancholy clad.
And oft the Sorceress, in her sated wrath
Resigns them to the furies of her train,
The bloated Hydrops, and the yellow fiend,
Ting'd with her own accumulated gall.'

Every one, who has been so unfortunate as to have experienced this complaint, will bear witness to the truth and spirit of the description.

The description of the sweating sickness I shall quote at large, which has equally the truth of history and the embellishments of poetry to recommend it.

'Ere yet the fell Plantagenets had spent
Their ancient rage at Bosworth's purple field;
While, for which tyrant England should receive,
Her legions in incestuous murders mixed,
And daily horrours; till the fates were drunk
With kindred blood by kindred hands profus'd;

Another plague of more gigantick arm
Arose; a monster, never known before,
Rear'd from Cocytus its portentous head.
This rapid Fury, not like other pests,
Pursued a gradual course, but in a day
Rush'd, as a storm, o'er half th' astonished isle,
And strewed with sudden carcases the land.

First through the shoulders, or whatever part
Was seized the first, a fervid vapour sprung.
With rash combustion thence, the quivering spark
Shot to the heart, and kindled all within;
And soon the surface caught the spreading fires.
Through all the yielding pores the melted blood
Gushed out in smoky sweats; but nought assuaged
The torrid heat within, nor aught reliev'd
The stomach's anguish. With incessant toil,
Desperate of ease, impatient of their pain,
They toss'd from side to side. In vain the stream
Ran full and clear, they burn'd and thirsted still;
The restless arteries with rapid blood
Beat strong and frequent. Thick and pantingly
The breath was fetched, and with huge labourings heaved.
At last a heavy pain oppress'd the head,
A wild delirium came; their weeping friends
Were strangers now, and this no home of theirs.
Harass'd with toil on toil, the sinking powers
Lay prostrate and o'erthrown; a ponderous sleep
Wrapt all the senses up...they slept and died.

In some, a gentle horrour crept at first
O'er all the limbs; the sluices of the skin
Withheld their moisture, till by art provoked
The sweats o'erflowed, but in a clammy tide;
Now free and copious, now restrained and slow;
Of tinctures various, as the temperature
Had mixed the blood; and rank with fetid steam,
As if the pent-up humours by delay
Were grown more fell, more putrid, and malign.
Here lay their hopes (though little hope remained)
With full effusion of perpetual sweats
To drive the venom out. And here the fates
Were kind, that long they lingered not in pain.
For who survived the sun's diurnal race,
Rose from the dreary gates of hell redeemed.
Some the sixth hour oppress'd, and some the third.

Of many thousands few untainted 'scap'd;
Of those infected, fewer 'scap'd alive;
Of those, who lived, some felt a second blow;
And, whom the second spar'd, a third destroyed.
Frantick with fear, they sought by flight to shun
The fierce contagion. O'er the mournful land
Th' infected city pour'd her hurrying swarms:
Rous'd by the flames, that fired her seats around,
Th' infected country rush'd into the town.
Some, sad at home, and in the desert some,
Abjured the fatal commerce of mankind.
In vain—where'er they fled, the fates pursued.
Others, with hopes more specious, cross'd the main,
To seek protection in far distant skies;
But none they found. It seemed, the general air,
From pole to pole, from Atlas to the East,
Was then at enmity with English blood.
For, but the race of England, all were safe
In foreign climes; nor did this Fury taste
The foreign blood, which England then contained.
Where should they fly? The circumambient heaven
Involved them still, and every breeze was bane.
Where find relief? The salutary art
Was mute, and, startled at the new disease,
In fearful whispers hopeless omens gave.
To heaven, with suppliant rites, they sent their prayers;

Heaven heard them not. Of every hope deprived,
Fatigued with vain resources, and subdued
With woes resistless, & enfeebling fear,
Passive they sunk beneath the weighty blow.
Nothing but lamentable sounds were heard,
Nor aught was seen but ghastly views of death.
Infectious horrour ran from face to face,
And pale despair. 'Twas all the business then
To tend the sick, and in their turns to die.
In heaps they fell; and oft one bed, they say,
The sick'ning, dying, and the dead contained.'

I hope that the excellence of this passage will apologize for its length; and, indeed, the whole poem is worthy of attention, and cannot fail of affording sincere pleasure to those who possess a classical taste, undebauched by the meretricious ornaments and gaudy trappings of modern poetasters.

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GOSSIPPING.

THERE is nothing more contemptible, than that gossipping disposition, which delights in hearing and repeating little tales of slander and ill-nature. What is wonderful, is, that persons of any sense should give credence to the ridiculous stories in circulation. For my own part, I make it a standing rule never to believe any report to the disadvantage of a friend or acquaintance, upon the mere assertion of an indifferent person. I have always found, on examination, that the story is either entirely false, or else so disguised and exaggerated, as to be widely distant from the real truth.

Ned Worthy is one of the best fellows in the world. Whenever he enters, there is a smile of satisfaction on every face in the room. As he is in easy circumstances, he once paid the tax of a wealthy bachelor, in being called on to maintain a child not his own. Ned immediately gained the reputation, particularly among his female friends, of being a man of gallantry. It was no sooner known that Ned was engaged to a fine woman, than the child began to multiply; and the future Mrs. Worthy is actually threatened, on her marriage, to be presented with no less than TWELVE ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN. The story of the black crows is no longer a fable.

It was currently reported, and at last confidently affirmed, that, on Thursday last, Will Careless was caught in bed with Mrs. B. The whole Exchange was alive, and every insurance-office electrified with the intelligence. You would have thought, that some important news had arrived from Europe; that Bonaparte had arrived at Petersburgh, or that the French had been cut up piece-meal. On inquiry, it was discovered, that Mrs. B. was on that day in the country with her family, and that Will had not yet returned from Philadelphia, whither he had gone some time since on business.

Miss Prudelia Prim, it was said, was actually delivered of coloured twins. It turned out, on investigation, that miss Prudy's lap-dog had brought her two black puppies.

—

COWPER'S HOMER.

'THE merits of Mr. Cowper (says Gilbert Wakefield, speaking of the translators of Homer) it is much more difficult to estimate, with a benevolent regard at the same time to the sacred feelings of an amiable writer, under a reverence inspired by a man of fine genius, and with justice to the publick, by a religiously scrupulous adherence to sincerity. I

speak with unwilling emphasis, but unaffected hesitation, when I assert, if my own ears are not absolutely unattuned to the melliflu-ous cadence of poetick numbers, the structure of Mr. Cowper's verse is harsh, broken, and inharmonious, to a degree inconceivable in a writer of so much original and intrinsick excellence. His fidelity to his author is, however, entitled to unreserved praise, and proclaims the accuracy and intelligence of a critical proficient in his language. The true sense of Homer, and the character of his phraseology, may be seen in Mr. Cowper's version to more advantage, beyond all comparison, than in any other translation whatsoever within the compass of my knowledge. His epithets are frequently combined after the Greek manner, which our language happily admits, with singular dexterity and complete success. His diction is grand, copious, energetick, and diversified, full fraught with every embellishment of poetick phraseology. His turns of expression are, on many occasions, hit off with most ingenious felicity ; and there are specimens of native simplicity also in his performance, that place him at least on a level with his author, and vindicate his title, in this respect, to superiority over all his predecessors in this arduous and most painful enterprize. Boswell, in his Life of Johnson, has spoken of Mr. Cowper's translation with an unfeeling petulance, with an insolent dogmatism, perfectly congenial to that rash and audacious censor.'

Notwithstanding this panegyrick, Boswell's opinion seems to be that of the publick, and the ' insolent dogmatism of an audacious censor' is not inapplicable to Gilbert himself, with all his learning and abilities, which are readily acknowledged to have been great and uncommon. The accuracy of his judgment and the firmness of his taste are points more questionable.

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# *ORIGINAL POETRY.*

*For the Anthology.*

[Hoc jucundum carmen scriptum fuisse dicitur A. D. 1742 : et, a Sam. Johnson, in vita, inter optima ingenii facinora poetæ nostri numeratur.

Hujus carminis figuram ab Horatio, car. 35, lib. 1, captam esse, non negatum est ; quanquam longe viribus, in opere sequente, Romano noster Anglus anteponeretur.—Multa certe micantia, quæ in Anglicano carmine apparent, in his meis Latinis versibus, sive non reperiuntur, sive dubie coruscant.]

## *CARMEN*
## THOMÆ GRAY,
IN
ADVERSITATEM,
*LATINIS VERSIBUS REDDITUM.*

O, soboles magni Jovis ! O, tu ferrea virgo !
Pectora quæ superas hominum, domitasque catena ;
Te veniente, boni pravique premuntur, et omnes
Tempora mœsta malo tua et aspera verbera vitant.

Turgentes animis, qui sunt in sede superbo,
Ob tua, sæpe humiles, adamantina vincula mœrent ;
Abjecti, incassum insolitis rubeique tyranni
Et curis lugent, fulgent et inaniter ostro.

Cum natam voluit primum demittere ab alto,
Virtutem in terris, hominum pater, et sibi caram,
Progeniem tibi sidéream tum tradidit ille,
Præcipiens teneram infantis te educere mentem.
Per multos sequitur virtus tractibilis annos,
Doctrinamque tulit duram, aspera, frigida nutrix !
Tristitiæque graves docuisti noscere vias,
* Disceret illa malo ut, miserus versata, moveri.

Attonitique, tuos fugiunt vultus metuendos
Stultitiæque cohors, fastosaque, vánaque turma,
Clamor, et immanis Risus, cum Gaudio inani.
Hi fugiunt nobis tempus dant discere justa :
Ut levis aura abeunt, et disperguntur iis cum
Hostilisque comes, nimium atque sodalis apricus ;
Prosperitas ubi sit quærunt promissaque portant
Illi iterum fidei, illa iterum et in amore feruntur.

At gradibus, tibi sunt comites, sanctisque sequuntur
Vestibus ornata, in primis, Sapientia nigris,
Atque profundo animo vasta et sublimia versans.
Proxima nunc illa et, semper taciturna puella,
Oraque habens mœsta, et terram in sua lumina tendens ;
Omnibus illa ac apparens blandissima Diva ;
Justitia austeras dura imponens sibi leges ;
Illa et sensibilis fundans a pectore guttas.

Tu, proles metuenda Deum, exaudique petentem,
Leniter exerceque tuum objurgante flagello ;
Non ut visa, veni, pœnis succincta malorum,
Horrificans furiis, serpentibus undique compta,
Verberibusque ferox, et lumina torrida volvens ;
Nec rapido incessu ardescens, nec voce minaci,
Horrens comitata altis plangoribus atri,
Nec Morbo, morienteque Spe, Penuria et arcta.

Et, Deu, sume sibi blanda ora, oculosque benignos,
Terroresque remitte tuos, et vincla relaxa ;
Atque tua agmina fer veniens Sapientia tecum,
Non curas augere meas, lenire sed acres.
Da mihi naturam eversam inque reducere sedem ;
Et bene amare meos, ignoscere et instrue mentem.
Hæc quoque tu concede mihi, mea noscere prava,
Quo vivunt alii modo, et ipsum hominem esse peractum.

* Hujus versus medulla extrahitur ossibus Virgilii, ut seq.
"Haud ignara mali, miseris succurrere disco."

L. M. SARGENT.

*March*, 1807.

*For the Anthology.*

## CASTLE BUILDING. AN ELEGY.

"Sweet pliability of man's temper, which can at once surrender itself to illusions, that cheat expectation and time of their weary moments."

GODDESS of golden dreams, whose magick power
Sheds smiles of joy o'er misery's haggard face,
And lavish strews the visionary flower
To deck life's dreary path with transient grace:

I woo thee, FANCY, from thy fairy cell,
Where, mid the endless woes of human kind,
Wrapt in ideal bliss, thou lov'st to dwell,
And sport in happier regions, unconfined.

Deep sunk, oh Goddess! in thy pleasing trance,
Oft let me seek some low sequestred vale,
Whilst WISDOM's self shall steal a side-long glance
And smile contempt,—but listen to my tale.

Alas! how little do thy vot'ries guess
Those rigid truths, which learned fools revere,
Serve but to prove (oh bane to happiness!)
Our joys delusive, but our woes sincere.

Be 't theirs to search, where clust'ring roses grow,
Touching each sharp thorn-point to prove how keen;
Be 't mine—to trace their beauties as they blow,
And catch their fragrance, where they blush unseen.

Haply, my path may lie through barren vales,
Where niggard Fortune all her smiles denies—
E'en there shall FANCY scent the ambient gales,
And scatter flow'rets of a thousand dyes.

Nor let the worldling scoff; be his the task
To form deep schemes, and mourn his hopes betray'd;
Be 't mine to range unseen, 'tis all I ask,
And frame new worlds beneath the silent shade;

To bid groves, hills, and limpid streams appear,
The gilded spire, arch'd dome, and fretted vault,
And sweet society be ever near,
LOVE ever fond, and friends without a fault.

I see entranc'd the gay conception rise,
My harvest ripen, and my white flocks thrive;
And still, as Fancy pours her large supplies,
I taste the godlike happiness to give;

To check the patient widow's deep-felt sigh,
To shield her infant from the north-blast rude,
To bid the sweetly glittering tear arise,
That swims in the glad eye of gratitude.

To join the artless maid, and honest swain,
  Where fortune rudely bars the way to joy,
To ease the tender mother's anxious pain,
  And guard with fost'ring hand her darling boy.

To raise up modest merit from the ground,
  And send the unhappy smiling from my door ;
To spread content and cheerfulness around,
  And banquet on the blessings of the poor.

Delicious dream ! how oft beneath thy power,
  Thus lessening the sad load of other's woe,
I steal from rigid fate one happy hour,
  Nor feel I want the pity I bestow.

Delicious dream ! how often dost thou give
  A gleam of bliss, which truth would but destroy ;
Oft dost thou bid my drooping heart revive,
  And catch one cheerful glimpse of transient joy.

And oh ! how precious is that timely friend,
  Who checks affliction in her dread career ;
Who knows distress—well knows that he may lend
  One hour of life, who stops one rising tear.

Oh ! but for thee, long since the hand of care
  Had mark'd with livid pale my furrow'd cheek :
Long since the shivering hand of cold despair,
  Had chill'd my breast, and forc'd my heart to break.

For ah ! affliction steals with trackless flight,
  Silent the stroke she gives, tho' not less keen ;
And bleak misfortune, like an eastern blight,
  Sheds black destruction, tho' it flies unseen.

Oh come then, FANCY, and with lenient hand,
  Dry my moist cheek, and smooth my furrow'd brow ;
Bear me o'er smiling tracks of fairy land,
  And give me more than Fortune can bestow.

Mix'd are the boons, and chequer'd all with ills,
  Her smile the sunshine of an April morn ;
The cheerless valley skirts the gilded hills,
  And latent storms on every gale are borne.

Give me the hope that sickens not the heart,
  Give me the wealth that has no wings to fly,
Give me the pride that honour may impart,
  Thy friendship give me, warm in poverty.

Give me the wish that worldlings may deride,
  The wise may censure, and the proud may hate ;
Wrapt in thy dreams to lay the world aside,
  And catch a bliss beyond the reach of Fate.

*For the Anthology.*

GENTLEMEN,

The following "elegant and glowing stanzas" are not from the pen of Mr. Barlow; nor were they recited by Mr. Beckley at the "elegant dinner," given by the Citizens of Washington to Captain Lewis.

*See National Intelligencer*, 16 *January*, 1807.

## ON THE DISCOVERIES OF CAPTAIN LEWIS.(1)

GOOD people, listen to my tale,
'Tis nothing but what true is;
I'll tell you of the mighty deeds
Atchiev'd by Captain Lewis—
How starting from the Atlantick shore
By fair and easy motion,
He journied, *all the way by land*,
Until he met the ocean.

HEROICK, sure, the toil must be
To travel through the woods, sir;
And never meet a foe, yet save
His person and his goods, sir!
What marvels on the way he found
*He'll* tell you, if inclin'd, sir—
But *I* shall only now disclose
The things he *did not* find, sir.

He never with a Mammoth met,
However you may wonder;
Nor even with a Mammoth's bone,
Above the ground or under—
And, spite of all the pains he took
The animal to track, sir,
He never could o'ertake the hog
With navel on his back, sir.

And from the day his course began,
Till even it was ended,
He never found an Indian tribe
From Welchmen straight descended:
Nor, much as of Philosophers
The fancies it might tickle;
To season his adventures, met
A Mountain, sous'd in pickle.

He never left this nether world—(2)
For still he had his reason—
Nor once the waggon of the sun
Attempted he to seize on.
To bind a *Zone* about the earth
He knew he was not able—
THEY SAY he did—but, ask himself,
He'll tell you 'tis a fable.

—

*Notes.*

(1) There are *some* understandings, graduated on such a scale, that it may be necessary to inform them, that our intention is not to depreciate the merits of Captain Lewis's publick services. We think highly of the spirit and judgment, with which he has executed the duty undertaken by him, and we rejoice at the rewards bestowed by congress upon him and his companions. But we think with Mr. John Randolph, that there is a bombast in Politicks, as well as in Poetry; and Mr. Barlow's "elegant and glowing stanzas" have the advantage of combining both.

(2) "With the same soaring genius, thy Lewis ascends,
"And *seizing the Car of the Sun*,
"O'er the sky-propping hills, and high-waters he bends,
"And gives the proud earth *a new zone*."

Thus sweetly sings the soaring genius of Barlow. He has in this stanza obtained an interesting victory over verse. He has brought *zone* and *sun* to rhyme together; which is more than ever was attempted by his great predecessor in psalmody, Sternhold.

He never dreamt of taming *tides*,(3)
  Like monkeys or like bears, sir—
A *school*, for teaching floods to flow,
  Was not among his cares, sir—
Had rivers ask'd of him their path,
  They had but mov'd his laughter—
They knew their courses, all, as well
  Before he came as after.

And must we then resign the hope
  These Elements of changing ?
And must we still, alas ! be told
  That after all his ranging,
The Captain could discover nought
  But Water in the Fountains ?
Must Forests still be form'd of Trees ?
  Of rugged Rocks the Mountains ?

We never will be so fubb'd off,
  As sure as I'm a sinner !
Come—let us all subscribe, and ask
  The HERO to a dinner—
And Barlow stanzas shall indite—
  A bard, the tide who tames, sir—
And if we cannot alter *things*,
  By G—, we'll change thier *names*, sir!

Let old Columbus be once more
  Degraded from his glory ;
And not a river by his name
  Remember him in story—

For what is *old* Discovery
  Compar'd to that which new is ?
Strike—strike *Columbia* river out,
  And put in—*river Lewis !*

Let dusky Sally henceforth bear
  The name of Isabella ;
And let the mountain, all of salt,
  Be christen'd Monticella—
The hog with navel on his back
  Tom Pain may be when drunk, sir—
And *Joël* call the Prairie-dog,
  Which once was call'd a Skunk, sir.

And when the wilderness shall yield (4)
  To bumpers, bravely brimming,
A nobler victory than men ;—
  While all our heads are swimming,
We'll dash the bottle on the wall
  And name (the thing's agreed on)
Our first-rate-ship United States,
  The flying frigate *Fredon.*

True—Tom and Joël now, no more
  Can overturn a nation ;
And work, by butchery and blood,
  A great regeneration ;—
Yet, still we can turn inside out
  Old Nature's Constitution,
And bring a Babel back of *names*—
  Huzza ! for REVOLUTION !

—

*Notes.*

(3) " His long curving course has completed the belt,
  " And tamed the last tide of the West.

" Then hear the loud voice of the nation proclaim,
  " And all ages resound the decree,
" Let our Occident stream bear the young hero's name,
  " Who *taught him his path to the sea.*" BARLOW's *Stanzas*.

Here the young HERO is exhibited in the interesting character of schoolmaster to a river ; and the proposition, that the river should take his name by way of payment for his tuition, appears so modest and reasonable, that we should make no objection, were it not that the wages must be deducted from the scanty pittance of poor Columbus. He has already been so grossly defrauded by the name of this hemisphere, that we cannot hear with patience a proposal to strip him of that trifling substitute of a river, which had so late and so recently been bestowed upon him.

We invite the attention of the reader to the *rare* modesty of Mr. Barlow himself, who, in committing this *spoliation* upon the fame of Columbus, does not even allow him the chance of an adjudication, . . but undertakes, by self-created authority, to make proclamation for the whole nation, and to pronounce the decree for all ages !

(4) " Victory over the wilderness, which is more *interesting*, than that over men."——*Barlow's Toast at the Dinner.*

# THE BOSTON REVIEW

FOR

## *MARCH*, 1807.

*Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere vero assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.* PLIN.

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ARTICLE 10.

*Plain discourses on the laws and properties of matter; containing the elements or principles of modern chemistry, with more particular details of those practical parts of the science, most interesting to mankind, and connected with domestick affairs. Addressed to all American promoters of useful knowledge. By Thomas Ewell, M. D. one of the surgeons of the U. S. navy.*

"Humanity, sitting at the portal of misery, through the medium of science implores relief, while a tear is dropt for the unfortunate children of men."

1 *vol.* 8*vo.* Brisban & Brannan. New-York. 1806.

CHEMISTRY, as a science, has existed but a few years. Though many philosophers, from the time of Bacon and Boyle, were led by the spirit of experiment and induction to observe the operations of those laws, strictly termed chemical, it was not till the age of Lavoisier, of Black, and of Priestley, that the numerous facts, which they had collected, were generalised and erected into the beautiful fabrick of modern chemistry. The flame, which these philosophers enkindled, is now more widely diffused. Many from necessity, and not a few from inclination, have devoted their time or their fortunes to the advancement of this science. Men of sagacious minds and of extended views have embodied their own and the discoveries of others into a regular system. They have defined the science of chemistry; they have elucidated its laws, and marked the boundaries between this and the other branches of physicks, with which it is intimately connected. But however valuable these elementary works may be to those, whose desires terminate in a general view of its principles, the artist is often disappointed in the detail of those processes or operations, which are the effects of chemical laws, and on the knowledge of which depends the success of many useful and œconomical arts. In a system of chemistry every fact, however insulated or unconnected, must be noticed, and every substance, however useless or uninteresting, must be described and its characters defined. When therefore every thing is entitled to the same degree of notice, some important arts must be slightly mentioned, and all but imperfectly described. A work then, which should be devoted to the consideration of the chemical arts, and

should contain accurate descriptions of those minutiæ, which, though necessary to be known, are usually omitted in elementary works, would be a valuable gift to society. To supply, in some degree, this deficiency, was the object of Dr. Ewell in composing the work before us. He professes, in the preface, to give a 'general account of the properties of matter, with more particular details of the most useful and interesting parts of the science, in a language, adapted to the comprehension of the most common understandings.' Its object is 'to lessen the difficulties and increase the conveniences of the citizens of the United States, by introducing them to a more intimate acquaintance with chemistry, or the qualities of the substances around them.' He acknowledges his obligations to the various systematick works of Thompson, Murray, and Accum; but, says he, 'it will be found, that I have advanced something new on the subjects of heat, light, electricity, vegetation, manures, and on several other branches of chemistry.' In common, however, with many other authors who have prejudged the publick sentiment, Dr. Ewell has informed us, that an allowance should be made for the errours of the work, by considering, that it was written in the moments of leisure, in the intervals of professional avocations. It is of little consequence, however, to his readers, whether it was composed in broad day, or by the midnight lamp; in the hours appropriated to business, or during the moments usually devoted to relaxation and social enjoyment. A work will be ultimately estimated by its intrinsick merit. It may be, for a while, upheld by the patronage of the friendly, or supported by the clamours of the interested, but it will eventually sink to its proper level, and rest on its own worth.

The preface is followed by an address to the farmers, artists, and other citizens of our own country, in which are detailed at large the various arts, whose operations depend on the agency of chemical laws, and the extensive application of the principles of this important science to the purposes of life. The account is well written, and is calculated to give his readers a correct idea of the immense variety of operations, which are founded on the doctrines of chemical affinity. But in speaking of the pleasures, which the chemist enjoys in the contemplation of the effects of these laws, our author quits the sober style of science for the language of the visionary. Here, in fact, commences that rage for "something new," by which the subsequent pages of this work are characterised. We could not help smiling at the affected stoicism, with which he utters the following curious sentence, in attempting to describe the last moments of a chemist: 'Instead of trembling,' says he, 'on finding his extremities losing their genial warmth, and growing dark with livid fluids; instead of giving way to shrieks and lamentations, while his perception is failing, his mind may be amused in contemplating the exercise of the laws of his visible body, till it takes a final departure for enjoyment in other scenes.' This, however, is merely the commencement of the climax, which is at length unfolded in the last page of this address, where our author steps forth, arrayed in all the terrours of inspiration, in the following sublime passage: 'Ye free agents! ye guardians of the young! can you allow those under your care to

neglect learning the principles of this all-important science! What then will you say, when arraigned at the bar of justice, before a Creator, an assembled universe, for neglect of duty? Your hoary locks will not cover you! the number of the accused will naught extenuate, and in vain will you deny the charge! The children of successive generations will rise up around you—In the face of heaven they will bitterly complain of the beauties, to which they were insensible!' At this awful denunciation, we confess, we were somewhat startled—

'Steteruntque comæ et vox faucibus hœsit.'

The substance of the work is comprised in fifteen discourses, in which our author has pursued the subject systematically, and has adopted an arrangement that is well calculated to give a correct view of the objects of this science. He first divides all bodies into confinable and unconfinable. The latter term he applies to the four elements, heat, light, electricity, and galvanism. Under the former are included, first, the aëriform or gazeous fluids, and the various liquid bodies, resulting from their union. —2. The simple combustibles and the products, arising from their combination with oxygen.—3. The simple or undecompounded acids. —4. Alkalies.—5. Earths.—6. Metals.—7. Vegetable,—and, 8. Animal chemistry. The whole is concluded with an 'address' to his fellow-citizens.

We shall now proceed to examine the work itself. A new and original production on any subject of science, is such a rara avis in this hemisphere, that we opened the leaves of this work with a sufficient degree of prepossession in its favour. Our curiosity, however, was somewhat checked on the perusal of the observations, prefixed to the account of the unconfinable bodies. We are told, in the title-page, that this work professes to discourse on the laws of matter, and hence we are led to expect, that it ranges through the whole circle of physical science. Yet, in the first paragraph, we are presented with a definition, or rather explanation, of the science of chemistry. 'The object of chemistry,' says he, 'being to ascertain the properties, or qualities, or laws of matter, it follows, that every thing around us, commencing with the air, and ending with the earth, are the subjects of chemical research.' Dr. Ewell surely cannot be ignorant, that by this observation, which in the table of contents is called a definition, he confounds this science with mechanical philosophy and natural history. The distinction, however, between these departments of physical science is very obvious, though the precise boundaries of each may not have been exactly ascertained. Natural philosophy is employed in the investigation of those effects, which result from sensible motion.* The return of a body to the earth, when deprived of the power by which it was elevated, depends on the operation of an unknown law or power, inherent in matter, called, by Sir I. Newton, gravitation; which is simply an expression of an ultimate fact, beyond which the most acute mind is lost in uncertainty. The ratio of the momentum of this body, or in other words, the intensity of the power, is determined on mathematical principles, and the effect is referred to the doctrine

* Henry's epitome of chemistry. Introduction.

of moving forces. When an elastick substance impinges on another at rest, the latter acquires some principle, by which it is caused to change its place. These actions, though resulting from the operation of certain laws of matter, are obviously not chemical. The construction of achromatick glasses depends on the different degrees of refrangibility of two species of that substance ; and the laws, by which they are regulated, make a part of dioptricks. The formation, however, of these substances, the nature of the ingredients, and the theory of their reciprocal action, result from the application of laws, which are strictly chemical. On the other hand, the province of natural history is to describe the qualities of bodies, and, according to their degrees of similitude in external characters, to reduce them to certain classes, and subdivide them into genera and species. But neither the naturalist, nor the mathematician, nor the natural philosopher, has any thing to do with those actions, which, in certain circumstances, result from the contiguity of heterogeneous particles, and are followed by a change of properties and relations. We thus approximate to the true definition of chemistry. But it is not our duty to supply, though it may be to expose, the deficiencies of Dr. Ewell. From this view of the subject, it will appear obvious, that our author has given an erroneous statement of the nature of this science, by confounding it with those, which treat only on the general properties of matter. Having thus, as he supposes, established the definition of chemistry, he devotes a few pages to the consideration of the general laws of matter, in which he briefly notices the attractions of gravity and cohesion, *chemical affinity*, and repulsion. The doctrine of affinity is the most important, and the most interesting, in the whole range of chemistry. In fact, to know the affinities of bodies, is to be acquainted with the science ; and we have a right to expect, therefore, in a work like this, that the laws, by which they are regulated, should be accurately detailed and clearly arranged. But we look in vain for this generalisation. The account, we think, is confused and imperfect, and by no means calculated to give its readers a correct idea of its importance. Dr. Ewell, however, is an enemy to divisions, and we cannot expect them in a work, whose author declares them 'opposed to the uniform simplicity of nature.' On repulsion he has said little. In fact, he has altogether denied the existence of a repulsive principle among the particles of bodies, and endeavours to support his opinion by this sage observation—'that the cause of the separation of such bodies is a mechanical one, as in most cases will appear evident, and consequently it would be improper to conclude there is a repulsive principle.' *p.* 50.

Our author then proceeds to describe the nature and principles of those elementary substances, to which has been applied the term unconfinable. The first of these is heat. We could not help remarking the want of arrangement, in describing the various relations of caloric. The fears of Dr. Ewell, that his subject would be rendered perplexed, by many subdivisions, have led him into an opposite errour ; and the account, therefore, of this substance, seems both confused and imperfect.—Chemists have usually divided caloric into two kinds, viz. of communication, and of transmission, or

radiation. Of the latter, however, he has said nothing. In fact, he seems not to have been acquainted with the experiments of Mr. Leslie,* and of Count Rumford,† on the different radiating power of the surfaces of different substances, although on this principle have been founded important improvements in various arts, essential to the comfort of society. On the various conducting powers, of different substances, and the application of this knowledge to the purposes of life, Dr. Ewell has written with accuracy and judgment, although here, as in many other places, we remarked the copious extracts from the chemical work of Mr. Accum.‡ But, while considering the various modes of generating or evolving caloric, we were not a little surprised to find, that the heat, produced by the appulsion of the solar rays on terrestial bodies, should be considered as the effect of chemical action. We are told,§ that the caloric, generated by bringing the rays of the sun to a focus, by a convex lens, is in consequence of the union of light with the particles of bodies, by which their capacity is destroyed, and their latent heat consequently evolved. In proof of the correctness of his opinion, he affirms, that it requires some time for the rays of caloric to pass through the substance of the glass. It is well known, that caloric is at first retarded in its passage through diaphanous bodies, in consequence of combining with their particles. At least, this is the fact with regard to the radiation of the particles of this substance from culinary fire, though the retardation of solar heat is by no means so obvious. But let us for a moment suppose, that bodies, placed in the focus of a burning glass, are not acted upon by the calorific solar rays, it may still be asked, in what way can light act by evolving their latent caloric ? When metallic, or concrete oily substances are thus exposed, they are soon reduced to a state of fusion, their capacities are increased, and they consequently absorb caloric ; yet Dr. Ewell is made to say, that bodies, exposed to the rays of the sun, have their capacities for heat increased, and consequently are made to evolve the caloric, with which they were combined. This is evidently an absurdity ; for it is impossible to conceive, that the fluidity, and consequent increase of capacity of a body, could be produced by the evolution of a quantity of caloric, which was just sufficient for it in a solid state. Our author endeavours, in the same way, to account for the fusion and combustion of different substances, by the electrick and galvanick fluids, not recollecting that their capacities for heat are probably diminished by the sudden and violent compression of their particles.

In the subsequent pages we find him attacking the theory of latent heat, as described by Dr. Black. He however quotes no authorities, nor has once mentioned the names of Crawford and of Irvine, who are so justly celebrated for their writings on the capacities of bodies. But we shall have sufficient reason to believe, that respect for the opinions of others is not to be ranked among the infirmities of Dr. Ewell. It is quite unnecessary, we presume, to enter on the discussion of the different theories, which have been advanced by several philosophers on the nature of capacity ; we shall, therefore, confine ourselves to the examination

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* Leslie on heat.
† Nicholson's Journal, 8vo. series.
‡ Accum's Chemistry, vol. 1, p. 88.
§ Page 67.

of those facts or experiments, on which our author has grounded his opinion. On a review of these, we have sufficient reason to believe, that he has not only been unfortunate in his selection, but that they are calculated to establish more strongly the doctrine which he is attempting to overthrow. 'Nitric acid,' says he, 'in a strong heat, is converted into two airs of great bulk, which contain no more heat than the acid did.' This is mere assertion. Dr. Ewell has not pointed out the experiments, by which he is authorised to state this fact with so much confidence; nor indeed can he be in possession of any facts, on which he may ground his opinion. On the contrary, the decomposition of the nitric acid is effected by the agency of caloric, and, at the moment of transition of this substance from a liquid to a gaziform state, a considerable absorption of caloric might take place, without being perceptible to the senses. These two airs are azote and oxygen, and it has been proved by actual experiment that both, in passing from the aëriform to the liquid or solid state, give out considerable quantities of caloric. In proof of which our author has only to consult the papers of Mr. Biot* and of Mr. Northmore.† The former of these, by mechanical pressure, effected the union of oxygen and hydrogen gases, which was attended by a 'strong luminous explosion.' It has been observed, that the mere compression of atmospherick air in the reservoir of an air-gun has been followed by the production of light and heat. Dr. Ewell observes, that 'when we bring two airs together, the ammoniacal and the muriatic, they form a solid, and yet throw out *no* heat.' Now in the statement of this action, he has been guilty either of unpardonable negligence or of great want of candour, that he might bring it as a formidable argument against the truth of Dr. Black's theory. Had he taken the trouble of consulting his oracle, Mr. Accum,* he would have found, that the union of ammoniacal gas with ordinary muriatic acid gas is attended by a 'considerable' evolution of calorick; but when this alkali is mixed with the oxy-muriatic acid, the combination is attended with a 'rapid detonation, and accompanied with a white flame.'† The observation, that water gives out different quantities of caloric, when rendered solid by freezing, and by combining with quicklime, is no proof in favour of our author's hypothesis. Having given our chemical readers an account of Dr. Ewell's objections to the theory of Dr. Black, we shall now present them with his own hypothesis, and leave them to form their own opinions of its truth. He states his opinion to be, that the 'solidity and fluidity of bodies depend on the same cause which varies their capacities for heat, and this is, the exercise of the particular affinities of the body, in the circumstances existing in the different degrees of heat.' *p.* 75.

The discourse on heat is terminated by an account of some experiments, instituted by our author to ascertain the ponderability of caloric. From the manner, in which these were conducted, tho' they have been 'addressed to that celebrated chemist, Dr. Mitchell, now of the United States senate,'‡ and published in the Medical Repository, we do not hesitate to say,

* Nicholson's Journal, vol. 12. p. 212.
† Ibid. vol. 12 & 13. p. 361 et 238.

* Accum's Chem. vol. 1. p. 332.
† Ib. p. 342. ‡ P. 75—6.

that they are of little weight in determining the question, respecting the nature of heat, which has so long divided chemical philosophers. We ought to observe, that these experiments were made to prove the corporeal nature of caloric ; for if heat can be weighed, the question respecting its materiality is at once decided. They consisted in dissolving salt in water, and weighing the solution after the absorption of caloric had ceased ; 2dly, in adding sulphuric acid to water, and ascertaining the weight of the compound when it had fallen to the temperature of the ingredients before they were mixed. The conclusions, drawn from these experiments, are very remarkable. He affirms, that they gained or lost half a grain in weight for every ounce of the mixture, and his inference, presuming on their accuracy, is very natural, that 'heat is matter.' Now experiments to determine this question were made so long ago as the age of De Luc of Geneva, and they have been repeated and varied by Lavoisier, Dr. Fordyce, and Count Rumford, with the most scrupulous exactness, without any general acquiescence in the belief of either doctrine. Those of the latter were characterised by delicacy of instruments and accuracy of calculation. Yet notwithstanding this combination of circumstances, which promised some positive conclusion, he was unable to detect either the accession, or loss of weight, in the heating or cooling of bodies. Consequently, the inference which he drew was, 'that neither the addition nor abstraction of caloric, makes any sensible alteration in the weights of bodies.'* The weight which Dr. Ewell gives to caloric, in his experiments, is not far from that of a cubick inch of atmospherick air ; yet, is it possible to believe, that this substance, which from its excessive tenuity has been termed unconfinable, can equal in specifick gravity another, which is confinable, almost tangible, and as easily managed as many liquid bodies ? If the proof of the materiality of caloric depended solely on these experiments, the advocates of the contrary theory, we think, would have little trouble in establishing their positions.

In common with most systematick writers on chemistry, Dr. Ewell commences his discourse on light with a detail of its physical properties. In speaking however of the refraction, which the solar rays suffer in their passage from a rare to a dense medium, he has committed an important errour, which has probably escaped detection merely from the inattention of the author. In proof of the refractive power of the atmosphere he affirms, that 'the sun sets and rises earlier, than appears to spectators.' Now, almost the converse of the proposition is true. In consequence of the refraction, which the rays of light suffer in their passage from a rarer medium through our atmosphere, the sun is apparently above, before he has actually reached, the plane of the horizon. Dr. Ewell surely cannot be ignorant of this fact, nor that the degrees of refraction at different altitudes have been accurately calculated by several eminent astronomers, particularly by Sir I. Newton, Mr. Simpson, and Dr. Bradley, whose tables may be seen in any elementary work on astronomy. Consequently, the sun rises *later* and sets earlier, than appears to the inhabitants of the earth.* We are now to view our

* Thompson's Chemistry, 2d ed. vol. 1. p. 308. Nicholson's Journal, 4to. series, vol. 3. p. 381.

* Enfield's Institutes, p. 256—7. Ferguson's Astronomy, 4th ed. p. 92.

author as the opponent of the illustrious Newton. We are always tempted to suspect, that when a young man commences an attack on universally received doctrines, which, in fact, are considered by the world as axioms in philosophy, he is actuated more by vanity, than the genuine spirit of philosophical inquiry. Dr. Ewell has undertaken to overthrow the theory of the prismatick colours, and to erect on its ruins his own more ingenious hypothesis. But we recommend to him the observation of the ancient poet,

'Non omnia possumus omnes.'

He may be a good chemist, but he is no optician. It may not be amiss, however, to notice the arguments, which he adduces to disprove the correctness of these principles. He thinks, that the experiment of decomposing a ray of light by the refractive power of the prism, and the subsequent union of the primitive colours so as to produce the original ray, by no means conclusive. He goes on to observe, that 'if the doctrine of the composition of light were true, it could not account for all the colours of bodies. To suppose, that blackness is the consequence of the absorption of all the light must be absurd; since it is only by the reflection of light that we are enabled to see black bodies; and since those, which are transparent, and of course allow the light to pass through them, are very far from being black. That whiteness does not proceed from the reflection of all the light is shown by the circumstance, that the whiteness of bodies is not in proportion to their reflection of light. Hence mercury, polished iron, and other metals, reflect more light, than the whitest paper.' The futility of these objections will appear obvious to all, who are acquainted with the doctrine of light, and the laws, by which it is governed in its passage through diaphanous, and its reflection from opake bodies. It is true, that black bodies are seen by reflection, but this light is reflected from coloured bodies in their neighbourhood. When a black object is placed so as to intercept a portion of light, those rays, which pass along its edges, define its figure and mark its boundaries; and it is thus more by the interception of the rays of light from other bodies, that black substances are seen, than by its reflection from their own surfaces. 2. The reason why diaphanous bodies do not appear black is, that they are capable of transmitting the rays of light, which Dr. Ewell thinks should produce that colour. While the sun is above the horizon, an immense body of light is continually flowing from different objects. These secondary, or reflected rays, passing in all directions, must necessarily, in some cases, strike upon these diaphanous bodies and be either reflected or transmitted, in consequence of which the latter will appear more, or less coloured. It is a well known fact, that objects are always seen more or less distinctly thro' such substances, arising from the less or greater refraction of these accidental rays of light. 3. It is not necessary to the truth of the Newtonian doctrine of colours, that bodies must reflect all the light which fall on their surfaces. It is only necessary, that that portion, which is reflected, should be undecompounded, or be still composed of the seven prismatick colours. Consequently a body may appear white, which still transmits a portion of light, impelled on its surface. The truth of this observation has been demonstrated. According to the photometric experiments of Mr. Leslie, of 100 parts of incident light vellum pa-

per transmitted 49 parts, and thin post 62.* Our author next proceeds to the consideration of the theory lately advanced by some English philosophers, respecting the calorific and de-oxidizing solar rays.† Of this he is an unbeliever, and of course is very brief. He has mentioned neither the names, nor the experiments of Herschell, Wollaston, Ritter, and Englefield ; and he dismisses the subject almost without comment, with this single observation, that it is 'too complex to be true' !

We shall now present our readers with Dr. Ewell's own theory of colours. He observes, that, 'our ideas of the colour of bodies appear to depend solely on the peculiar modification or motion of light given by the reflective surfaces. These reflective surfaces probably receive their respective powers, in consequence of peculiarities in their mechanism or organization.' Upon the supposition, that light is a homogeneous body, which it seems is the idea of our author, we can conceive of no other physical alteration it may undergo, by its appulsion on a hard body, than some change in the figure of its particles. But we have no proof, that this change of form does take place, nor that the surfaces of bodies are capable of producing this effect. We cannot conceive that colour should depend on any peculiar mechanism of matter. All the particles, however small, of a substance, when aggregated must form a mass, whose reflective surfaces are at least equal in number to the molecules of that body. Now each of these, we presume, is a plane surface with regard to the incidence of the rays of light ; consequently, in whatever mode these surfaces are arranged, they can only reflect the light in an angle equal to that of incidence, which, thus reflected, may strike on other surfaces, and be reflected ad infinitum without any change of properties, and at length will reach the eye, where they will excite sensations differing, not in nature, but only in intensity. It will be evident to all, that a difference of motion of the rays of light can only excite corresponding stronger or weaker impressions on the retina, and consequently that these can be followed by perceptions only of different degrees or quantities of light. In support of his opinion, our author brings as proofs, that coloured liquids vary in colour as their position, with regard to the eye, is altered ; and, 2, the appearance which the clouds present before the rising, and after the setting, of the sun. It is unnecessary, we presume, to take up more of the time of our readers in answering these objections. We have already exceeded the limits of a common review, and have reason to fear that it has become as tedious as a "tale twice told." We shall, therefore, finish the subject of light, by noticing another hypothesis of Dr. Ewell, on the agency of this substance in the production of the yellow fever. We mean not to enter on the discussion of its merits. It will be sufficient to observe, that from the nature of light, it appears inadequate to the effects ascribed to it in this theory, and that the phenomena can be more rationally explained on the principle of the action of caloric on putrescent animal and vegetable substances. It remains for us, therefore, only to advert to the two other unconfinable substances, electricity and galvanism. We could not help admiring the lucid manner in which

* Leslie on heat, p. 445-6.
† Nicholson's Philosophical Journal.

our author defines the latter. 'Galvanism,' says he, 'resembling, in a few of its properties, the electrick fluid, is one lately and accidentally discovered by an Italian, and which is generally termed galvanism, or animal electricity.' In fewer words, galvanism is a fluid, generally termed galvanism!

Under the head of electricity Dr. Ewell attempts to account for the production of light, during the passage of the electrick fluid from one conductor to another, or from the clouds to the earth, by supposing that the latter diminishes or destroys the capacity of the air for the former. He quotes no authority in support of his opinion, nor does he mention the names of any of those philosophers, from whom he probably first received it. Indeed, from the manner in which it is introduced, his readers might be disposed to believe, that he was the person, in whom it first originated. Now Mr. Berthollet was the first, who attempted to account for the evolution of light and caloric from substances, acted upon by the electrick fluid, by supposing, that their capacities for these elements were very much diminished in consequence of the sudden and violent compression of their particles.* This idea was more fully developed in a paper, read to the National Institute of France, by M. Biot, which has since been translated and re-published in Nicholson's Philosophical Journal.† It was afterwards noticed by the editor of this periodical publication,‡ and seems to have attracted the attention of Mr. Leslie, who had even written an essay on the subject, though it was never published.§

This theory is plausible and ingenious; but there is one strong objection, which is, that the luminous spark often appears stationary on the point of the conductor, and in that situation it is apparently as brilliant, as when moving with great velocity through the air. In this state, it is difficult to conceive, that the air should be so forcibly compressed, as to lose its capacity, and consequently evolve the light and caloric, with which it was combined.

We have thus finished the review of those simple elementary substances, which are termed by Dr. Ewell, on the authority of Thompson and Fourcroy, unconfinable. We have been more diffuse in our examination from a belief, that they contained much false theory and incorrect statement, and this is the only apology we have to offer for our prolixity. In our next number we shall finish our observations on this work by considering its more immediate object, the application of the principles of chemistry to domestick affairs or to those arts, on which the ease and comfort of society essentially depend.

[To be continued.]

* Berthollet's Chemical Staticks.
† Vol. 12. p. 212.
‡ Vol. 13. p. 89—90.
§ Leslie on Heat. Note 17.

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ART. 11.

*The Wanderer of Switzerland, and other Poems, By James Montgomery.* Boston: Greenough, Stebbins, & Hunt, and J. F. Fletcher. 1807. 18*mo. pp.* 177.

We claim some regard for having first brought this beautiful collection from the solitary corner of a shop into general notice, by publishing some of the shorter odes in our poetical department. The Muses of England do not often utter sweeter notes, than these, combining the simplicity of Burns

with the tenderness of Rogers. Those, who have been delighted with 'The Daisy,' 'The Snow-Drop,' 'The Lyre,' and 'The Grave,' extracted into several numbers of the Anthology for the last year, will purchase this little volume with readiness. We easily discern, that the author is little versed in the writings of his brother bards, and perhaps wholly ignorant of the works of antiquity; but, if his natural taste has not yet been cultivated to the utmost, we find, perhaps on that very account, more of originality of thought and simplicity of language. The first poem is pathetick, almost beyond whatever our language can boast in its ancient or modern ballads. However animating may have been the strains of Tyrtæus, of whom Horace tells,

.....manes animos in Martia bella
Versibus exacuit,.....

we cannot believe, they would bear the palm from the 'Battle of Alexandria.' The 'Remonstrance to Winter' contains the only verse in the volume, eminently exposed to censure.

'Spring, the young cherubim of love,
An exile in disgrace,
Flits o'er the scene, like NOAH's dove,
Nor finds a resting place.'

Without a knowledge of Hebrew, the author might have learned, that our best writers use 'cherubim' only in the plural number. The offence against prosody, in the third line, is grating to the ear, and justifiable by no example. The beautiful thought, in this passage, will always be degraded by this mistake of quantity; but this single fault ought to be forgotten in the general harmony of the verses. The poem, which pleases all, must possess intrinsick merit. Montgomery is defective, like all our great poets, in some matters of inferiour importance; but he has a magnificence of imagery, and a dignity of sentiment, that few have equalled. He has the life-giving stamina of originality, and will be numbered, by after ages, in the ranks of genius.

Ollis igneus vigor, cœlestisque origo.
VIRG.
They have a fiery force, and their origin is from heaven.

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ART. 12.

*Economica: a statistical manual for the United States of America. By Samuel Blodget, Esq.* Printed at Washington. 1806. 8*vo*.

AS the profession of a statesman is generally the ambition of few, the science of finance, which regulates the publick revenue and expenditures, and the interesting study of political economy, have been but little attended to, and but partially understood. When it is considered, that the publick treasury is filled by contributions from all classes of citizens, in different proportions, and in various forms, an investigation of the principles and progress of accumulation must be acknowledged highly important.

A wise statesman, however, will not confine himself to the mechanical business of levying and receiving taxes, and expending them for the support of government. He will rather create new channels of industry, and open new fields for the employment of useful labour, and all his exertions will be to change the unproductive labour of his fellow-citizens, for more valuable employments. For this purpose, he will naturally turn his attention to manufactures, internal

navigation, and other subjects, tending to facilitate land or water transportation.

The Economica seems to have been undertaken with a laudable zeal to excite inquiries concerning such subjects, and had the work been more conformable to the title, or, which would have been less difficult, the title better adapted to the work, its aspect would have been less deceptive, and the reader less disappointed.

The author's plan is displayed in a letter to a young member of congress, in which he gives his own system of legislation, and earnestly calls upon the representatives to pay more attention to their duty, and *modestly* intreats 'all our young legislators to forget, at least for the time of their session, a part of their extreme locality; and to fancy, if possible, the apron-string of COLUMBIA as natural a tie to their affections, as that of an amiable mother or a beloved wife.'

Having long been engaged in statistical studies, and enjoying many opportunities of acquiring authentick data, the writer might have compiled a very valuable set of tables, with more ease and convenience to himself, and more entertainment and instruction to his readers, if he had devoted less time to legislation, and confined his ingenious speculations to the pursuits of political economy. But legislation is not his fort. In page 18 he says,

> 'All taxes being hated, as if obnoxious to the people, except in times of imminent danger, or when some noble monument, or charity, or university, or school, excites a noble emulation, they should be kept out of sight, and of feeling, if possible.'

Now, whatever may be the ideas conveyed by the term 'taxes,' they have always been found necessary for the maintenance of government, and all the ingenuity and wisdom of ancient or modern legislation have not been able to free the people from paying them, either in the form of imposts, duties, excises, customs, or subsidies, &c. Since taxation therefore, under one form or another, is the inevitable result of the social compact, an enlightened government should endeavour to render it light as possible, explaining the mode in which it is accomplished; although, at the same time, it may be always good policy to impose some direct taxes, that the people may not forget their occasional necessity. If, instead of this, we admit the odiousness of expense, and then, with a kind of state legerdemain, contrive to conceal its imaginary deformity, and create a revenue by a course of smuggling, we give occasion to jealousy and discontent, and all the evils which a dark and mysterious policy begets, but which an open and undisguised system of measures can alone avoid.

Next to the prefatory address the author presents us with a 'brief chronological detail of interesting facts, relative to the discovery and progress of the American states;' with the constitution, and a statistical table of the population and general wealth of the union. This table consists of 6 pages, which serves as the text for 130 pages of notes, without any division, arrangement, or very intelligible application. Many valuable tables are interspersed among the notes, which form admirable resting places to the reader; and the occasional extracts from other authors, frees his mind from the perplexities and confusion in which the long periods, obscure senten-

ces, and inconclusive reasoning of the writer, involves him.

In page 81, in note B. he says,

'Another law, for each and every state, would have an excellent tendency to extend *neat husbandry*,...viz. After the year ****, no citizen, or single freeholder, should hold more than **** acres in any one county or state.'

This, to be sure, might assist '*neat* husbandry,' but does not seem calculated to preserve *neat* liberty. The impolicy and absurdity of such a law, requires no comment; and when he proceeds to state the impending dangers of over-grown landholders, we want better evidence than he has yet adduced.—He says,

'If it be true, that all republicks are finally ruined by the monopoly and tyranny of their over-grown landlords, we cannot be too well guarded against the danger in the older counties of the several states. All this will occur in due time, or an Agrarian must be the consequence, as in times of antiquity, unless the *minor republicks*, or monied associations, and generally commercial habits, should secure and perpetuate the glorious freedom of America.'

From this passage we may infer, that the writer entertains a *comfortable* hope, that, 'in due time,' the republick will be in danger of being overthrown by the power and influence of land-holders; but as his work is intended for the United States, he either reasons wrongly, or he forgets the innumerable acres in the western states, yet unoccupied, together with the unexplored and unknown territory of Louisiana. If any republick can be in danger from the land-holders, and such an opinion is not authorised by the history of any country, it must be a small one, and very populous; but, in a country where so much land remains unimproved, an Agrarian law would produce consequences directly the reverse of those the author contemplates.

After having represented the attachment which the Romans manifested for their capital city, and the enthusiastick love the French bear to Paris; after relating the lamentable sacrifice, made in the sale of publick lots at Washington, in 1802; and after calling the attention of congress, to the project of opening canals and turnpike-roads from the seat of government, in radial lines, to all parts of the union, he thus addresses them:

'*Fathers of the American people!* be assured of this sacred truth! until you can agree, with *heart and hand*, to love THE HEART OF OUR UNION, the people will never respect their HEAD.'

To love with the heart is natural enough; but when love becomes so intense as to require the assistance of the hands, the lover is in a deplorable situation. We must confess, this apostrophe seemed a little strange at first, but the author has informed us in the prefatory address, that he owned several hundred house lots in the city of Washington:

Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas.

We cannot acknowledge the great utility of a national debt, which the author appears to think so highly advantageous. His ideas of publick loans, for the purpose of establishing publick credit, are founded on an imaginary basis, and cannot have the effect of increasing the confidence in government. In page 82, he shortly states the advances we make in population, and proposes, by foreign loans, to increase our numbers to such a pitch as to defy foreign invasion:

'We repeat, that our population increases at least 3 per cent. by an annual

compound, by which we double our population in about 23 years. We shall do this in less, if we become more commercial, and encourage, by all means, further useful emigration; *this we ought to do*, to place our country immediately in a state invulnerable to foreign invaders. The easiest means are, first, an increase of foreign loans; and the rest will then follow of course, as we trust we shall fully evince in other parts of our book.'

Whenever the circulating medium of a country is sufficient to answer all demands, for the commercial and ordinary transactions of its inhabitants, a further increase is not only unnecessary but injurious. Money was invented rather as a substitute for credit, than as a subject of trade, and whenever it shall not supply the common purposes of domestick use, the money price of all articles, and land, will be lessened. When the circulating medium is multiplied, the consequence is reversed, and the nominal value of things seldom bought, will be increased. This is the only difference. But our author would increase it by foreign loans, that we may enhance the value of publick lands, and introduce a multitude of foreigners, to cultivate and improve them. If such an absurd theory can be sustained, the practice is impossible.

Many other erroneous principles will be discovered on perusing the 'Manual,' which we shall not particularise. His ideas of a publick debt, and the process of paying it by an advantageous change of publick stock, are very questionable, and result from a false notion of the value of the 'vital fluid' of the state. Many of his tables are trifling, and claim little credit; and his 'full and perfect inventory' of all the real and personal estate of the union, is rather a whimsical reverie, than an accurate and useful statistical document. This inventory amounts, in round numbers, to $2,505,000,000; but as articles of so great value seldom appear at market, we shall omit examining it.

Much credit, however, is due to the author for his labour in collecting materials and forming tables, relative to 'receipts and expenditures,' imports and exports, and various other subjects, which come naturally within the course of statistical inquiries, and political economy. In the table, containing the list of banks in the United States, we noticed a difference we little expected. In Massachusetts alone there were twenty-two banks in 1805, while all the other states afforded but forty-six. The same disproportion in publick schools exists, much to its honour.

The style, in which the manual is written, will not bear a close examination. Like some pieces of painting, examine it closely, and its roughness offends; viewed at a distance, its disproportions are monstrous. There are too many repetitions, and weak and trifling expressions, which are altogether unfit for a work of this kind, where clearness and simplicity are peculiarly requisite.

Although the Manual of Mr. Blodget cannot with impunity pass the ordeal of just criticism, his work will certainly claim attention for its novelty and importance. The inquiry into the causes of national prosperity, wealth, and happiness, can be looked upon with indifference only by those, in whom pecuniary or political aggrandizement has stifled all feelings of humanity.

Statistical inquiries originated and were first adopted in Germany, the publication of which gave rise to Sir John Sinclair's very

valuable and extensive statistical account of Scotland. The object of these was to acquire a knowledge of the strength of government on such subjects, as particularly relate to 'Matters of State.' But Sir John Sinclair extended the sphere, and affixed to the term '*Statisticks*' the idea of "an inquiry into the state of a country, for the purpose of ascertaining the quantum of happiness, enjoyed by its inhabitants, and the means of its future improvement." Thus defined, this science is certainly comprehensive enough for all purposes of political economy and statistical philosophy. It has hitherto been little considered; nor can very extensive investigations be made, without prompt and efficient aid from government. The want of scientifick men, capable of conducting such inquiries; the great responsibility, to which any individual must subject himself; the difficulty of persuading others to co-operate, and of establishing a regular and enlightened correspondence; and the immense labour of collecting, arranging, and condensing the information, when obtained, relative to so extended and diversified a territory as the United States of America, are obstacles, which nothing but a liberal assistance from administration can remove.

It is certainly the duty of government to watch over the domestick economy of the state with the same care and solicitude, that it protects and fixes its foreign relations. In order to improve the commercial resources of the Union, it should make critical inquiries into the present state of manufactures, ship-building, and all the branches of manual labour, connected with them, and introduce such regulations and improvements, as will most promote their usefulness. To extend the system of agriculture, it should ascertain the amount of produce annually raised, the number of labourers employed in the various departments of husbandry, and collect information relative to the soils best adapted to different vegetables. To lessen the quantum of unproductive labour, inquiries concerning the present state of inland navigation and turnpikes should be instituted, and the utility and practicability of any proposed additions or alterations designated. This is peculiarly important to a country, where so much land remains unoccupied, and where new settlements are continually forming, the prosperity of which must depend upon easy and convenient communications with distant and older settlements. In the banking system, inquiries should be made relative to the number, capitals, operation, and effect of banks, and the influence they have upon the internal traffick of the country. Under this head, the subject of money, in all its relations, will naturally be investigated. The subject of education also merits great attention. The number of universities, colleges, academies, and other seminaries of learning, should be obtained, and the modes of instruction, and the nature of the establishments, examined. These are subjects, upon which the beneficent and philosophick mind dwells with delight; but from which it turns with disappointment and regret, if those, who have the means, or who, urged by duty to the pursuit, view them with coldness and indifference.

If to combine science with the useful arts; if to convert idleness to industry, and beggary & wretchedness to competence and enjoy-

ment ; if to substitute learning and morals for ignorance and corruption ; if to introduce improvements in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, and explode the present slovenly, unproductive, and awkward practices ; if, in short, to exert ourselves in the cause of promoting the strength and happiness of the nation, are objects worthy the attention of enlightened statesmen, an establishment, under the aid and patronage of government, must produce the most salutary and beneficial effects. As such a design would raise the moral and physical character of man, and as its foundations are laid deep in the interest and welfare of the community, it would certainly succeed, and it success would be attended with publick confidence and gratitude.

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ART. 13.

*The Stranger in Ireland ; or a tour in the southern and western parts of that country, in the year* 1805. *By John Carr, Esq. of the Honourable Society of the Middle Temple, author of a Northern Summer, the Stranger in France, &c.*

—'Animæ quales neque candidiores
Terra tulit, neque queis me sit devinctior alter.' Hor. Lib. I. Sat. 5.

*Third American edition. To which is now first added, an Appendix, containing an account of Thomas Dermody, the Irish poet, a wonderful instance of prematurity of genius.* N. York, printed by I. Riley & Co. 1807.

How Carr's Stranger in Ireland and Dermody's life have been brought together, in the volume under review, is a thing which cannot be accounted for, on any principle of attraction in nature. The reason assigned for this curious arrangement is, that Dermody is mentioned *incidentally* in Mr. Carr's publication ; this is too ridiculous to need any comment in proof of its absurdity : the booksellers can reason more pertinently on this matter.

What may be said of Mr. Carr's book, must either be confined to general opinions, or extended to a particular review, which, from the great variety of subjects, enumerated in this volume, cannot be done, consistently, with the space allotted to this department.

Prefaces, in general, are replete with vain ostentation or frivolous excuse, and we have seldom seen any, so widely different from the common herd, as that of the volume before us. After a summary of the author's design, and an acknowledgment of the assistance he has received, he concludes by a declaration, that if he has failed in the execution, the fault must be altogether attributed to himself. The design of the work is to illustrate the Irish character, and to give a descriptive narrative of a tour into the south and south-west parts of Ireland, and also some account of the state of society, in 1805 ; also the political economy, national manners, publick buildings, &c., of that country.

The design is calculated to produce important effects, since it proposes to develope the real character of a nation, which has been hitherto very little known, or merely as the land of whiskey and potatoes.

The author has illustrated this character in a manner which does him very considerable honour ; and although his descriptions of Irish beneficence, &c. are sometimes overloaded, yet a pretty correct idea of *Ireland's national character* may be obtained from perusing this publication. The other

parts of his design are executed with ability, and prove the depth and extent of Mr. Carr's investigation.

To such, as read for their improvement, he has rendered his book highly profitable, by an abundance of useful matter; and those, who take up a volume, and put it down again, merely to fill up an interstice between their other amusements, will be *tickled* with many parts of the Stranger in Ireland.

On the other hand, the dignity of this work is considerably lessened by too great quantity of anecdote. "Salt (says Kaime) in certain quantities is seasonable at meals, but he must have a rare palate, who can make a dinner on salt." The numerous extracts from Curran, Grattan, Kirwan, &c. however profitable to the readers of this publication, are altogether extraneous from the author's design. We have no objection to an author's performing more than he promises, in the line of his subject, but when he would illustrate a national character by extracts from sermons and orations, as the method is somewhat singular, we should be glad to have a hint of it before hand.

The style of this volume is generally well adapted to answer the design, although in some parts crowded with superfluous epithets.

On the whole; Carr's Stranger in Ireland is the most correct and useful publication, giving an account of the Irish nation, that has ever appeared.

We shall now dispatch the 'Appendix, (so called) or some account of that surprising young genius, Dermody; extracted from the life of Dermody by J. G. Raymond, Esq.'

Dermody has been named 'the unfortunate poet of Ireland,' and he undoubtedly was so, if to be unfortunate is to be surrounded with friends and patrons, and to rush headlong into almost every species of vice, notwithstanding the repeated admonitions of the one and the assistance of the other.

We attribute the high reputation, in which Dermody has hitherto appeared, not to his real abstract merit, but to his miseries; and this is more singular, since the miseries of Dermody were the effects of his own brutish propensities. When we mourn over the follies or vices of any one, we are inclined by pity and not by justice. Pity begets partiality for the object of our commisseration and partiality endeavours to palliate every fault, while it exalts every thing in the shape of merit far above its real desert.

While we suppose Mr. Raymond very partial to young Dermody, we trace a cause, although we find nothing like an excuse for the many improbable stories in these '*interesting*' memoirs.—Did we believe in the Metempsychosis, we should at once conclude the soul of some ancient mythologist had revived in Mr. Raymond.—It is stated, that Dermody, 'when most children are scarcely instructed in the rudiments of their mother tongue, was perfectly familiar with the Latin and Greek languages, and could with facility read and comprehend the most difficult authors in those languages.'

What shall we say to this? that we do not believe the story, or that it is impossible? A child, perfectly acquainted with the Greek and Latin languages! Mr. Raymond is evidently distracted. We shall not therefore, remark any farther on these memoirs.

To such, as are desirous of

purchasing a correct edition of the Stranger in Ireland, handsomely printed, and on very tolerable paper, we would recommend that of I. Riley & Co. New-York: 1807.

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ART. 14.

*The Miseries of Human Life; or the groans of Samuel Sensitive and Timothy Testy, with a few supplementary sighs from Mrs. Testy. In twelve dialogues.* Boston: Greenough, Stebbins, & Hunt, and Belcher & Armstrong. 12*mo. pp.* 220.

This is perhaps the best satire, that ever appeared, on the folly of such as magnify petty accidents and trifling vexations into irresistible misfortunes and intolerable grievances. To grumble, is one of the most observable characteristicks of Englishmen, and we, their descendants, enjoy their vices, not less than their virtues, by hereditary succession.

In this work, which may be read by many with profit, and by all with pleasure, two persons meet to complain of every thing around, above, and within them; 'Twixt upper, nether, and surrounding fires.' At the first conference, after a warm, but amicable contest on the irritability of each, which is closed by a mutual concession, that the mind of one party and the body of the other is more exposed by susceptibility of misery, Sensitive opens, 'What, my poor sir, are the senses, but five yawning inlets to hourly and momentary molestations? What is your house, while you are *in* it, but a prison, filled with nests of little reptiles, of insect annoyances, which torment you the more, because they cannot kill you? And what is the same house, when you are *out* of it, but a shelter, *out of reach*, from the hostilities of the skies? What is the country, but a sandy desert at one season, or a swallowing quagmire at another? What the town, but an *upper* Tartarus of smoke and din? What are carriages, but cages upon wheels? What are riding-horses, but purchased enemies, whom you pamper into strength, as well as inclination, to kick your brains out?' &c. &c.

It is not worth our time to mention the divisions and subdivisions of misery; but we can assure the *fidgety*, that every topick of complaint is here largely discussed for their use. The moral, with which it concludes, is excellent, and might be recommended from the pulpit, as well as the novels of Richardson. All nervous criminals will be laughed into amendment. The author, who, we are informed by a letter from London, is the Rev. Mr. Beresford, an Oxford scholar, eminently deserves the praise, which Persius gives to his great master in satire.

Omne vafer vitium ridenti Flaccus amico
Tangit.

This book is worthy of universal perusal, and may be read in momentary snatches on the sofa. The puns of Dean Swift are rivalled here, so that no cynick is too hard to be melted by them to laughter. The best are from the Latin, which the author seems more conversant with, than our English poets. Groan No. 12, of the Miseries of London, is a fine instance.

'In going out to dinner, already too late, your carriage delayed by a *jam* of coaches.

'*Ned Testy.* Jam, jamque magis cunctantem.'

A better example is Groan No. 34, in the chapter of the Miseries of the table, &c.

'As for myself, between the mis-

chief to my nerves, if I do drink tea, and to my comfort, if I do not,——

'*Ned Testy.* You may cry with Martial,.....Nec TEA-*cum* possum vivere, nec *sine* TEA.'

It will be remembered by the readers of the Spectator, that the original line is rendered by Addison, "There is no living with thee, nor without thee." Of the English puns it may perhaps be said, "far-fetched and little worth," yet from Dryden's Alexander's feast we find one or two very palatable. But to extract excellencies might be endless.

The American Edition appears very neat, and we hope it is as correctly printed, as the London copy, which has not offended us with any faults during some months acquaintance.

ART. 15.

*The Battle of the Eutaw Springs, and Evacuation of Charleston, or the glorious 14th of December, 1782, a national drama in five acts. By William Joor, of St. George, Dorchester, South-Carolina, &c. &c.* Charleston, printed for the author by J. Hoff, 1807. Entered according to act of Congress, &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. &c.

RARE stuff this! But as Mr. Joor must have had his brains blown out in this same battle, it is not so bad. Like the productions of learned goats or pigs, or of those beings, who write and sew with their toes, and cut wood with their teeth, it excites our admiration. The errors and absurdities, with which it abounds, the want of common sense, and the want of a plot, are all very pardonable. We recommend it to '*The Republicans of South Carolina in general, and to those in particular, who were liberal and patriotic enough to bestow on it the meed of unbounded applause,*' as the rarest dish of gallimaufry, that we have ever yet seen. To these gentlemen the unhappy author has already presented it in his dedication, and to them, we most cheerfully commit it.

# CATALOGUE

## OF NEW PUBLICATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

*For MARCH,* 1807.

*Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala plura.*—MART.

### *NEW WORKS.*

....

The Fifth Volume of the Life of George Washington, commander in chief of the American forces during the war which established the independence of his country, and first president of the United States. By John Marshall. 8vo. with maps, &c. Philadelphia, Caleb P. Wayne.

Reports of Cases, argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia, decided by the Superiour Court of Chancery for the Richmond District. Part I. Vol. I. By William W. Hening, and William Munford, Esquires. Richmond, Virg. $1,50 in boards. 1807.

The Echo; consisting of burlesque, political and literary productions, in verse. 8vo. With elegant plates, designed by Tisdale, and engraved by Leny. Price 2 dollars 50 cents. Porcupine press, and for sale by Brisban & Brannan, New-York.

The Trials of William S. Smith and Samuel G. Ogden, for misdemeanours, had in the circuit court of the United

States, for the New-York district, in July, 1806: with the preliminary account of the proceedings of the same court, against Messrs. Smith and Ogden, in the preceding April Term. By Thomas Lloyd, Stenographer. New York. I. Riley & Co. For sale by Brisban & Brannan.

A faithful Report of the Trial of the cause of Philip I. Arcularius *vs.* Wm. Coleman, Gent. being an action for a libel, tried at the sittings before his honour Judge Livingston, on Saturday, January 3d, 1807; containing the arguments of counsel, and decisions of the court upon the points of law and evidence which arose—also the summing up of the judge at full length, taken in short hand, by William Sampson, Esq. and given to the publick at the request of some of his friends. New-York, Bernard Dornin.

Hamilton's Advice, or an inquiry into the propriety and consistency of Governour Lewis being supported by the federalists, while they oppose the election of all his friends, by a Friend of Gen. Hamilton.

"Aut cume honore vivemus,
Aut voriamur honore."
Or let us nobly rise,
——Or nobly fall.

New York. 8vo. Price 25 cents.

The Voters' Guide; or, the power, duty, and privileges of the constitutional voters in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. To which are added, original remarks, with various extracts from historians, and the writings and publick speeches of eminent political characters in this and other countries, tending to explain the causes of the rise and fall of republican governments. By Abijah Bigelow, attorney at law. Leominster, S. & J. Wilder. 12mo. pp. 150. Price 50 cents in boards.

Marcus's Letters to De Witt Clinton, Esq. 8vo. New-York. Samuel Stansbury.

The Political Farrago, or a miscellaneous review of the politicks of the United States; from the administration of Washington to that of Jefferson in 1806. Including a short history of the Pittsburg insurrection, remarks on the Louisiana purchase, Mammoth cheese, federalism and republicanism, atheism and deism, luminism and witchcraftism, &c. &c. By Peter Dobbins, Esq. R. C. U. S. A. 12mo. pp. 59. 25 cts. Brattleborough—printed by William Fessenden, for himself. January, 1807.

French Hononysms, or a collection of words, similar in sound, but different in meaning and spelling. By John Martin, Professor of Languages in New York. $1. New York, Collins and Perkins.

The Mysteries of the Castle; or, The Victim of Revenge. A drama, in five acts—By John B. White, author of Foscari, &c. 8vo. 50 cts. Charleston, S. C. Negrin.

Rules of the Supreme Judicial Court, and sundry acts regulating the admission of Attornies. 8vo. Portland, Thomas B. Wait.

An Oration, delivered on the Commencement, at Brown University, September 3, 1806. By John Reed, jun. a candidate for second degree. Published by request. 8vo. Providence, John Carter.

A Print of Thomas Jefferson, engraved by Robert Field, from a Picture by Gilbert Stuart. $1. Boston.

Strictures on the establishment of Colleges; and particularly St. Mary's, in the precincts of Baltimore. By different writers. Price 25 cents. Baltimore. For the Booksellers.

The peaceful Reflections and Glorious Prospects of the departing Saint. A discourse delivered in the meeting-house of the First Baptist Church in Boston, March 10th, 1807, at the interment of the Rev. Samuel Stillman, D. D. late pastor of said Church. By Thomas Baldwin, D. D. pastor of the Second Baptist Church in Boston. pp. 31. Boston, Manning & Loring.

A Sermon, delivered before the New York Missionary Society, at their annual meeting, April 3, 1804. By John H. Livingston, D.D., S.T.P. To which are added, an appendix, and other papers relating to American missions. Worcester, Thomas & Sturtevant.

A Sermon, delivered Nov. 3, 1806, at the funeral of Mrs. Mary Yates, consort of the Rev. Andrew Yates, who died October 31st. By Abel Flint. Hartford. Hudson & Goodwin.

A Sermon, delivered Nov. 20, at the dedication of the brick meeting house, in the north parish in Danvers. By Benjamin Wadsworth, A. M. Salem. Joshua Cushing.

Genuine Religion, the best friend of the people; or the Influence of the Gospel, when known, believed, and experienced, upon the manners and happiness of the people. By Archi

bald Bonar, A. M. J. How. Charlestown. 1807.

A Letter on the subject of Episcopacy, from Samuel Osgood, Esq. to a young gentleman of New York. 31 cents. New York, Collins & Perkins.

Sobriety, watchfulness, and prayer, illustrated and urged, in a farewel sermon, delivered, Waterbury, Con. Dec. 21, 1806. By Holland Weeks, A. M. late pastor of the first church in said place. New Haven. Oliver Steele & Co. 1807.

The Christian's Magazine: Intended to promote the knowledge and influence of Evangelical truth and order. Vol. I. No. I. To be published quarterly; 8vo. Price two dollars per annum. New-York. J. & T. Ronalds.

## *NEW EDITIONS OF WORKS.*

....

An account of the Life and Writings of James Beattie, LL.D., late Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logick in the Marischal College and University of Aberdeen, including many of his original letters. By Sir William Forbes, of Pitsligo, Bart., one of the executors of Dr. Beattie. 8vo. pp. 559. $2,50 in boards. New York, Brisban and Brannan. March, 1807.

Vol. I. of Lectures on the Elements of Chemistry, delivered in the University of Edinburgh; by the late Joseph Black, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in that University, physician to his Majesty for Scotland, Member of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, and the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburgh. Published from his manuscripts by John Robinson, LL.D. Professor of Natural Philosophy in the university of Edinburgh. First American, from the last London edition. 8vo. pp. 394. Philadelphia. Mathew Carey.

Vol. III. Part II. of The New Cyclopedia, or Dictionary of Arts and Sciences. By Abraham Rees, D.D., F.R.S., editor of the last edition of Mr. Chambers' Dictionary, with the assistance of eminent professional gentlemen. First American edition, revised, corrected, enlarged, and adapted to this country, by several literary and scientifick characters. 4to. Price $3,50 for the half-volume. After the publication of the 5th vol. the price will be $5. Philadelphia, S. F. Bradford. Lemuel Blake, No. 1, Cornhill, agent in Boston.

Εωια Πτεροεντα. Or, The Diversions of Purley. Part II. By John Horne Tooke, A.M., late of St. John's college, Cambridge. The first American edition, from the second London edition. 8vo. pp. 2d part, 432. Philadelphia, William Duane.

Vol. II. of The Works of the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. Boston, J. West, and Oliver Cromwell Greenleaf. Carlisle, printer. 8vo. $2 in boards. $2,50 after the 10th of April.

The Reports of the most learned Sir Edmund Saunders, Knt. late Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench, in the time of the reign of his most excellent majesty Charles the second. With three tables: the first with the names of the cases; the second of the matters contained in the pleadings; and the third of the principal matters contained in the cases. The first American, from the third London edition, with notes and references to the pleadings and cases, by John Williams, serjeant at law. In 2 vols. Vol. I. large 8vo. Price $6. Philadelphia, P. Byrne. [The second volume of this work is in forwardness, as is the fourth volume of Dallas's Reports, and the fourth or new series of Basanquet & Puller's Reports.]

Collins's Quarto Family Bible, with, or without Maps and Engravings. Philadelphia.

Memoirs of the Life of Marmontel, written by himself. 2 vols. 12mo. $2 bound. New-York, Brisban & Brannan. February, 1807.

Number II. of the second Boston edition of Shakespeare's Plays. Containing Merry Wives of Windsor, Measure for Measure, Comedy of Errors, with notes by Johnson, &c. 12mo. price 42 cts. Boston, Munroe & Francis.

An Abridgement of the History of New-England, for the use of young persons. Now introduced into the principal schools in this town. By Hannah Adams. Second edition. Boston. Etheridge & Bliss. 12mo. pp. 188.

A Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, and Expositor of the English Language. In which not only the meaning of every word is clearly explained, and the sound of every syllable distinctly shewn, but where words are subject to different pronunciations, the authorities of our best pronouncing dictionaries are fully

exhibited, the reasons for each are at large displayed, and the preferable pronunciation is pointed out. To which are prefixed, Principles of English Pronunciation; in which the sounds of letters, syllables, and words, are critically investigated, and systematically arranged; the influence of the Greek and Latin accent and quantity, on the accent and quantity of the English, is thoroughly examined, and clearly defined; and the analogies of the language are so fully shown, as to lay the foundation of a consistent and rational pronunciation. Likewise, rules to be observed by the natives of Scotland, Ireland, and London, for avoiding their respective peculiarities; and directions to foreigners, for acquiring a knowledge of the use of this dictionary. The whole interspersed with observations, etymological, critical, and grammatical. By John Walker, author of Elements of Elocution, Rhyming Dictionary, &c. Price $3,50, bound. Philadelphia.

The Wanderer of Switzerland, and other poems, by James Montgomery. 1 vol. 18mo. pp. 177. 75 cents, extra boards. Boston: Greenough, Stebbins, & Hunt, and James F. Fletcher.

The Biography and Letters of that celebrated wit and beauty, Ninon de l'Encloys, translated from the French, by Mrs. Griffiths, including also the correspondence between her and St. Evremond, and also with the marquis de Sevigne. New-York, David Longworth.

A Treatise on Malignant Intermittents. By J. L. Alibert, Physician to the hospital of St. Louis. &c. &c. Third edition, revised, corrected and enlarged. Translated from the French, with an introductory discourse, occasional notes, and an appendix. By Charles Caldwell, M. D. &c. Price $2 in boards. Philadelphia.

Narrative of the Adventures of an American Navy Officer, who served during part of the American Revolution under the command of Com. John Paul Jones, Esq. It is proper to state, that this "American Navy Officer" is Captain Nathaniel Fanning, late commander of Gun Boat No. 2, who died in Charleston, in the summer of 1805. Philadelphia.

An easy introduction to Arithmetick; by Thomas Randolph, Philadelphia. B. Johnson.

Letters to a Young Lady, in which the duties and character of women are considered, chiefly with a reference to prevailing opinions. By Mrs. West, author of Letters to a Young Man. 1 vol. 8vo. $2,50 bound. Albany, Parker & Bliss.

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The Columbian Orator, containing a variety of original and selected Pieces; together with Rules, calculated to improve youth and others in the ornamental and useful art of eloquence. By Caleb Bingham, A.M. author of the American Preceptor, Young Lady's Accidence, &c. 7th edition. 12mo. Boston, Manning & Loring, for the author. February, 1807.

The Wonders of Creation, natural and artificial, containing an account of the most remarkable mountains, rivers, lakes, caves, cataracts, mineral springs, Indian mounds, and antiquities in the world. In 2 vols. 12mo. Boston, John M. Dunham.

The Middlesex Collection of Musick; or, Ancient Psalmody Revised. Containing a variety of plain psalm tunes the most suitable to be used in divine service; to which is annexed, a number of other pieces of a more delicate and artificial construction, proper to be performed by a choir of good musicians occasionally, in schools and religious assemblies. pp. 136. 75 cents. Boston, Manning & Loring.

Salmagundi; or, the whim-whams and opinions of Launcelot Langstaff, and others. 18mo. New York, David Longworth. Subscriptions received in this town by Etheridge and Bliss.

## *WORKS IN THE PRESS.*

Ballads, by Walter Scott, author of the Lay of the Last Minstrel. 12mo. Boston, Etheridge & Bliss.

Vol. 3d of The Works of the Right Honourable Edmund Burke. Boston: John West, and Oliver C. Greenleaf.

A volume of Sermons on the following subjects. A sermon to little children; the duty of speaking to the young; the young invited to the com-

munion; early piety the comfort of old age; discourse to the aged; dry bones restored; birds and beasts preaching to men; Joab laying hold on the horns of the altar; nothing to be withheld when Christ has need; the gate of heaven strait; the causes why many cannot enter the gate; the awful condition of such as are excluded; Pilate's inscription on the cross of Christ; the disciples gazing at the ascending Saviour; the rainbow around the throne; no temple in heaven; universal praise for redemption; the wheels of providence; the temper of a Christian with regard to moral good and evil; the impiety of pleading God's promise in excuse for neglecting plain duty—(and several others.) By Joseph Lathrop, D. D. Pastor of the First Church in West-Springfield. 8vo. about 400 pages; price $1,75 bound. Springfield, H. Brewer.

A new novel, entitled, Ira and Isabella. By a Gentleman of Boston.—12mo. 75 cents, extra boards. Boston, Belcher & Armstrong.

A new edition of Mackay's Navigation. Philadelphia.

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## *WORKS ANNOUNCED.*

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William Andrews of this town, Proposes to publish, by subscription, the works of William Paley, D. D. archdeacon of Carlisle; with a Portrait of the author. In four handsome octavo volumes, containing I. The Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy. II. a view of the evidences of Christianity. III. Natural Theology, or the Evidences of the existence and attributes of the Deity, collected from the appearances of nature. IV. A Charge delivered to the clergy of the Diocese of Carlisle. V. A Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge. VI. A Sermon preached at the Assizes at Durham. VII. Three Sermons on various occasions. VIII. Reasons for Contentment. IX. Young Christian instructed. X. Horæ Paulinæ; or the truth of the Scripture History of St. Paul evinced by a comparison of the Epistles, which bear his name, with the Acts of the Apostles, and with one another. XI. The Clergyman's Companion.—This work will be printed in 4 octavo volumes, of 500 pages each, on a superfine wove paper, and new type. The price to subscribers will be $2 per vol. in boards; $2,25 bound.

Robert Frazier's Journal from St. Louis in Louisiana, to the Pacific Ocean, in one vol. 8vo.

The editor of the Companion, in Baltimore, has announced his intention of Publishing a weekly literary paper, in an 8vo. form, to be entitled The Observer.

Cushing and Appleton, of Salem, propose to publish by subscription, a Poem on the restoration of learning in the East; which obtained Mr. Buchanan's prize. By Charles Grant, esq. M. A. fellow of Magdalen college. To be printed in 8vo. on fine wove paper, making from 40 to 50 pages; price 38 cts. stitched in ornamental covers.

J. M. Dunham, of Boston, proposes to publish Sermons by Hugh Blair, D.D. F.R.S. late professor of rhetorick and belles lettres in the university of Edinburgh. In three volumes complete, from the 25th London edition of 5 vols. To which will be prefixed the life of that venerable author. Price $6 neatly bound and lettered.

Proposals are issued in Philadelphia, for publishing a new work, entitled The Young Seaman's Assistant, or a guide to naval tacticks. Calculated particularly for young beginners, whether in the navy or in the merchant's service, as well as for the occasional reference of those acquainted with navigation. In three parts; embellished with nine copperplates, representing some very interesting particulars in naval tacticks. By Wm. Shultz. Price $2.

Thomas Dobson, of Philadelphia, proposes to publish an elegant edition of the New Testament, with those very full marginal references, known by the name of Canne's Notes. To be printed on a superfine royal paper, with an elegant new type; and will be comprised in one large quarto volume of about 700 pages; price to subscribers $5. If this undertaking meet with suitable encouragement, proposals will be issued for printing the Old Testament in the same manner.

## STATEMENT OF DISEASES, &c.

*from Feb. 20 to March 20.*

THE last days of February generally clear. Prevalent winds from the north-west. In the commencement of March, rain followed by fair weather. From the 8th day repeated snows, melting gradually under the influence of the sun, and arrested by frost at night; whence a moisture on the surface of the earth during a great part of the month. Prevailing winds, north-west and west.

Greatest cold, on the 21st February. Therm. 22°.

Greatest heat, on the 17th Mar. Therm. 41°.

Lowest station of the barometer 29.3, on the 25th February.

Highest station 30.4, on the 28th February.

The temperature of the atmosphere, during the month, has been of an equality very remarkable in this climate. The mercury in the thermometer rarely passing 6° above or below the freezing point.

The state of the atmosphere has been more particularly noted, on account of the prevalence of the *epidemic catarrh*, or *influenza*, adverted to in the last report. The symptoms, which seemed to be most common, are there stated. We shall now describe those, which appeared in the most severe and strongly marked cases, taking as a specimen a single instance. A person, who had risen suddenly in the night, was on the following day affected with the symptoms of a common catarrh or cold, which were succeeded by a cough. This diminished till, on imprudent exposure a week afterwards, she was seized with severe head-ach, violent pains in the breast, back, and limbs, then a fit of shivering, followed by nausea and vomitting. In three hours a general heat came on, and the chill was felt no more. After this sudden commotion of the system had subsided, the pains before mentioned were found to be diminished, except a pain in the left side of the breast, which became more distinct. A soreness was felt over the chest, rendered more uncomfortable by a short, dry cough. This soon became more moist; and the expectorated matter was once or twice tinged with blood. The tongue was covered with a white mucus: the pulse about 100. At this time a small degree of soreness of the throat existed, and this part was seen to be slightly inflamed. Total loss of appetite, and of the sense of tasting—Remarkable depression of mind. Those appearances continued, without much variation, for three days. Then the fever, and frequency of the cough, diminished, and the soreness of the chest went off. The other symptoms subsided so soon, that the patient left her chamber in a week from the attack; but still retained a white tongue, a degree of pain in the side, and cough, of which she was not freed on the 14th day....Few cases occurred, where the attack was so violent as that in the instance abovementioned; but all the various forms of catarrh were witnessed during the prevalence of the disease. Although this complaint must be called a *catarrh with fever*, *febris catarrhatis*, yet there were some cases, where no febrile action could be observed. This remark has been made by STOLL on the catarrh, which prevailed at Vienna in February and March 1777. "Febricula exigua, errabunda, plerosque tenuit, *quosdam nulla*." He says that women were more commonly affected than men; and so far as our observation has extended, we can apply the remark to the disease seen here.—This complaint has now diminished very considerably. Distinct from the disease described, there have been a few cases of *Rheumatism* and *Pneumonia*.

*Erratum.* Page 114, line 8 from top, for *mechanicks* read *arithmetick*.